

# The Nation.

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## Topics of the Day.

THE two senators from Wisconsin engaged in debate on Wednesday upon the question of reconstruction. Mr. Howe thought it a rather singular coincidence that Mr. Doolittle's political opinions and the political opinions which bore the highest market value were always the same. In 1856 he abandoned the Democratic party; before that he had abandoned the Free Soil party; now, in 1866, he had abandoned the Union party. These remarks, however, were explained away, if not explained; they were intended in a *Pickwickian* sense, as it afterwards appeared, and had as little to do with Mr. Doolittle himself as with the matter under discussion. Mr. Doolittle made such a reply as might have been expected, and stated that he had been instrumental in saving the Union party in Wisconsin last year, although now that party denounced him. But "it was not the first time men had attempted to crucify their Saviour." We have nothing to say, it is not necessary to say anything, upon the tone and language of either speaker's remarks in this little passage of arms. But Mr. Howe made one point which it is well to dissent from: Semmes, he would say, is as well qualified to be a judge in Mobile as the *Mobilians* are to elect a judge, which may be true in fact and yet be a poor argument on Mr. Howe's side of the question. For Semmes and other prominent rebels to fill high offices would be a great scandal, and we believe that Congressional enactments and constitutional amendments to prevent such a scandal are absolutely right, and right also because eminently politic. But to stop the machinery of local government a moment longer than is absolutely necessary is neither right nor wise. Let the right to choose be recognized and exercised, though the right to choose certain great criminals to posts in the Government which they would have destroyed be denied.

THE Washington *Republican* regards it as "one of the mercies of God that a Congress utterly incompetent to finish up the work of restoration" had no opportunity to mar and mismanage the commencement of that work. Speaker Colfax, it says, after the last session neither suggested nor expected an extra session, and set out on a very long pleasure trip across the continent. To this Mr. Colfax has written a reply: he was not Speaker when he began his journey; he did expect an extra session; he spoke on the matter in April last to Mr. Johnson, who made answer that he had not then had time to think about it; at Mr. C.'s request Mr. Stanton promised, and performed the promise, to keep him informed in reference to the expected call. The letter is of interest, as showing what leading Congressmen thought probable and necessary, and because it shows also by direct assertion that Mr. Lincoln,

so early as the week after the fall of Richmond, was contemplating an extra session.

THE President has at last issued a proclamation against the Fenians. It has no particular value except as a warning to the "Irish Republic" that it will have to keep quiet, and as an intimation that the Government means to enforce the neutrality laws. We say this because the *New York Times* talks of the proclamation as if it were itself law, and says that since its issue Fenianism assumes a new form and is now, in consequence of the proclamation, "an insurrection against the power, authority, and majesty" of our Government. This is what it always was. The only difference the proclamation makes is that it lets Fenians know what the President thinks, which they ought to have known long ago. His liberating John Mitchel, in order that they might send him on a diplomatic mission to Paris, was perhaps as powerful a stimulus as the movement has yet received, and is but tardily atoned for by the proclamation.

ON Wednesday morning last, Seguin's Point, at the southern end of Staten Island, was seized with high hand by Mr. Schultz. He was acting for the Board of Health, the Commissioners of Emigration, and the Quarantine Commissioners, and was at the head of eighty-five policemen, who were supported by the guns of the United States revenue cutter *Cayuga*. On two occasions previously the Staten Islanders have risen in mobs and destroyed quarantine buildings, and this time they met the invading police with violent language; but the State authorities are decidedly in earnest, and the action they have just taken will meet with the almost unanimous approval of the State and of the country. It is so much the whole country's concern that it is not very easy to see why, on legal or other grounds, the State of New Jersey cannot be forced by the Federal Government to allow Sandy Hook, by far the best site for quarantine buildings, to be used for that purpose. But permanent buildings are already begun on West Bank, and for temporary use Seguin's Point will serve very well. At any rate, we shall no longer kill emigrants in the lower bay who have survived the perils of shipwreck and of imprisonment with the plague on the ocean and got over here to their land of promise.

WE regret to say that in the article on "Pardons and Morality," in our last issue, we fell into the error of calling Edward B. Ketchum, now in the State prison, whose case we were discussing, *Edgar Ketchum*. The latter happens to be the name of a very different person.

MR. COUNCILMAN WHITE succeeded on Monday in introducing and getting passed a resolution declaring it the duty of the city authorities to take immediate steps towards founding a free public library here in New York. The Board of Aldermen referred the resolution to the Committee on Arts and Sciences, and we understand that the chances are good of its seeing the light again. We have already urged the importance of an institution like that which Boston possesses, and there is no need to repeat the arguments in its favor. We shall be astonished if any opposition is made to it, and we are confident that if the city will but appropriate a piece of ground, a temporary building, a few thousand dollars—anything as a beginning and as an earnest of its interest in the undertaking, there will not be wanting wealthy citizens

to help the library along during their lifetime and to remember it in their wills. Private libraries, which are now liable to be scattered on the decease of their owners, will then gravitate to the public depository *pro bono publico*. The experiment is not doubtful after the first step which costs.

OUR foreign-born fellow-citizens met in mass meeting at Union Square on Monday afternoon to protest against the new excise law. Mr. Friedman, speaking for the Germans, deduced the illegality of the statute from "the principle of individual liberty and responsibility which has given to us much of our intense individualism, self-reliance, etc., etc." Col. Levy went back to Lafayette and Rochambeau to prove the superior claims of Franco-Americans to be relieved from the oppression of the "odious Sunday law." Mayor Hoffman sent a sympathizing letter, which was read and found to contain a quotation against reformers from a "distinguished statesman and orator," and the sensible reminder that while the law in question remained on the statute-book it was the duty of good citizens to obey it.

THE Postmaster-General declines to undertake to manoeuvre the telegraph lines of the country, ostensibly because he doubts the financial success of the enterprise and its effects on the politics of the country, but also, we trust, because he is conscious of the very imperfect management of his proper department. Of course, the telegraph companies were on hand with figures to show the impracticability of the scheme suggested in Congress, and their very small earnings of four per cent. a year. So for the present we must make what terms we can with these gentlemen.

JUDGING from the charge delivered by Judge Underwood to the grand jury in Richmond the other day—a violent, unbecoming harangue—the trial of Jefferson Davis, if it took place before him, would neither shed much light on the law of treason nor have much moral weight with the public.

In the North Carolina Convention, last Saturday, it was moved that a committee should proceed to Washington and discover, if possible, what it is that remains to be done before the State can be represented in Congress. This, some delegates thought, would be throwing the noble old North State "at the feet of Thad. Stevens and Charles Sumner," or it would be "stooping to kiss the toe of a political despot," by which title President Johnson is probably meant. But the resolutions passed by a vote of 71 to 20, after some strong speaking in their favor by members from the hill country, and perhaps it is in North Carolina, where the policy of the Executive first became visible, that Congress is to reap the first-fruits of its persistency.

EUROPEAN advices to the 27th of last month represent the assembling of a peace congress at Paris as certain and a speedy outbreak of hostilities as probable. The attitude of the minor states of Germany was not yet fully developed, but the declaration of the King of Würtemberg, at the opening of the Chambers, that, in case justice should not be rendered to Schleswig-Holstein, he, with his allies, would resolutely place himself on the side of right, is indicative of determinations favorable to Austria. In the Federal Diet a motion that Austria and Prussia should be requested to reduce their military establishments to a peace footing was unanimously adopted, the representatives of those powers promising to communicate at the next sitting the conditions on which they were willing to disarm. The representative of Prussia reiterated the demand for the convocation of a German Parliament, as the only means, perhaps, of averting war. The Austrian authorities were taking rigorous measures to prevent the Venetians from aiding their Italian brethren in their expected struggle. The Italian Government, on the other hand, was endeavoring to secure the co-operation of Hungarian and Polish exiles against Austria. Italian volunteers were flocking in thousands to their depots. Garibaldi urged "a truce to discussions and opinions." Numerous Bourbonists, accused of a conspiracy against the unity of Italy, were arrested at Naples.

## CONGRESS.

WASHINGTON, June 6, 1866.

An initial measure of some importance to educational interests throughout the country is at length before the House, in the bill to establish a National Department of Education. The measure proposes no action or interference on the part of the general Government with regard to systems of instruction in the States, and does not even embrace, what to many minds seems the proper function of such a department, the supervision of the education of the freedmen—those wards of the nation. It is simply a proposition to collect and distribute information respecting schools and methods of instruction. This is to be effected through a commissioner of education, to be appointed by the President, and five clerks, to be appointed by the commissioner. Rumor points to Henry Barnard, LL.D., as the probable appointee for this new office, should the bill become a law. But amendments are already offered to cut down the operative force of the proposed bureau to two clerks, to be employed under the direction of the Secretary of the Interior, to effect the objects of the bill.

A step in the right direction has been taken in the passage of the bill to abolish the army rations and other perquisites of military officers, and to pay them fixed salaries. The bill raises the compensation of some grades, and diminishes that of others, but will do away with illicit charges and promote economy.

A similar reform as to the pay of members of Congress is at length initiated, though it will probably fail to become a law immediately.

## DIARY.

Monday, June 4.—In the Senate, the constitutional amendment being taken up, Mr. Hendricks moved to amend by including in the basis of representation in the Southern States three-fifths of the freedmen; lost. Mr. Van Winkle offered an amendment, providing that no person not excluded from office by the terms of the third section shall be liable to any disability or penalty for treason after a term of years; lost—yeas, 8; nays, 26.

In the House, the Committee on Appropriations was instructed to report a bill distributing the aggregate pay for mileage of members of Congress in just proportion to the necessary expenses of reaching the seat of Government from their respective districts. Mr. Wilson spoke on reconstruction. The credentials of A. M. West, a representative elect from Mississippi, were referred to the Committee on Reconstruction. The bill to reduce and fix the pay of army officers occupied the rest of the day.

June 5.—In the Senate, Messrs. Poland, Stewart, and Howe made speeches on the constitutional amendment.

In the House, Mr. Garfield reported, from the Select Committee on that subject, a bill to establish a National Department of Education, under the charge of a commissioner and five clerks, to collect facts and statistics and diffuse information on school systems and methods of teaching. The bill was advocated by Mr. Donnelly and opposed by Mr. Rogers. The bill to reduce and fix the pay of army officers was advocated by Messrs. Schenck and Garfield, and opposed by Messrs. Davis and Rogers. The bill was then passed—yeas, 85; nays, 40.

## THE FREEDMEN.

SUPERINTENDENT EBERHART reports 71 schools in operation in Georgia, with 104 teachers and 6,991 pupils. Of the teachers it is noteworthy that 45 are colored, and 51 are residents of the State. Twenty-eight schools and as many teachers are sustained by the freedmen alone. Six new schools were opened during April, and there was an aggregate increase over March of 600 pupils. The popular disposition toward these innovations has ceased to be a subject of special complaint and is quite encouraging.

—Superintendent Tomlinson reports that in April there were 9,181 colored pupils on the school register of South Carolina, showing an average attendance of 6,320, the girls somewhat preponderating. About one-sixth of the whole were learning the alphabet; four-fifths were able to read and spell; 6,111 were pure blacks. The superintendent means, with the aid of native teachers, to keep the schools open all summer, when most of the Northern teachers will return to their homes.

—A Memphis paper justly protests against the usage to which the most respectable colored passengers are subjected on Mississippi steam-boats, being compelled to sleep on the floor of the decks, in spite of their having paid the usual fare. It is stated that a colored gentleman has instituted a suit against the owner of a White River packet, for being refused a state-room on the trip from Duvall's Bluff to Memphis.

## Notes.

## LITERARY.

SOME of the pleasantest and most valuable papers elicited by the death of President Lincoln were those from the pen of Mr. F. B. Carpenter, previously known to the public only as a painter, and chiefly for his historical picture of the first reading of the Emancipation Proclamation. The series appeared in the *Independent* and in part in "Hours at Home," and their merits were as universally recognized as those of the canvas. The two, in fact, cannot be separated. Mr. Carpenter's peculiarly intimate relations with Mr. Lincoln while engaged on his professional work, afforded him a rare opportunity of observing a character of whom we shall not soon tire of hearing fresh representations. The eagerness with which the public read, and the favor which they justly accorded to Mr. Carpenter's reminiscences, induced the artist-author to compile them in book-form together with many facts and anecdotes of facts communicated to him from a great variety of sources, and most of which have never yet been published. Messrs. Hurd & Houghton have the volume in press, and will shortly issue it under the title of "Six Months at the White House with Abraham Lincoln."

—Hardly any offence in literature is deserving of as much contempt and reprobation as the too frequent practice of using false quotations from reviews of books to help along the sale of the works. The beginning of one sentence is sometimes joined to the end of another so as to alter entirely the sense of the opinion expressed. This is so common that, except in advertisements by the most honorable publishers, such quotations should be entirely disregarded by persons thinking of buying the book. Two very reputable firms in London have recently got by the ears over a question of this kind. The "Quarterly Review," in the April number, had a very severe article on "Ecce Homo," condemning it as unsound in faith, untrue in fact, and uncritical in style. Messrs. Macmillan, the publishers of "Ecce Homo," thought that no advertisement would be so good as this sweeping condemnation, and accordingly reprinted this sentence from the "Quarterly": "The shallowest theories and the flimsiest arguments find a ready reception in an empty mind, and their sole strength is in the weakness and credulity of their dupes. Happily there is a vast body of educated men who are better informed." Mr. Murray, the publisher of the "Quarterly Review," complained of this citation on the ground that many persons were led to infer that the "Quarterly Review" had commended "Ecce Homo" as an antidote against "shallow theories" and "flimsy arguments," and he published an advertisement containing the whole passage. Messrs. Macmillan printed a counter advertisement repudiating the charge of "garbling," to the effect that "the first sentence of the extract fully expressed the unfavorable opinion formed by the reviewer; and that, in fact, had it not done so, the object of the publishers in reprinting it would not have been answered." To this statement Mr. Murray replied: "'The first sentence of the extract,' which the publishers of 'Ecce Homo' say 'fully expressed the unfavorable opinion formed by the reviewer,' was as follows: 'To refute all the errors which abound in 'Ecce Homo' would be tedious and useless.' This sentence was not in the original advertisement, and was only added by the publishers of 'Ecce Homo' after their first extract had been a subject of comment."

—The imminence of a great Continental war brings to the mind of the thoughtful the sufferings which the soldiers must endure, despite the advantage for relief offered by a thickly-settled country. *La Nazione*, of Florence, in a recent number printed an interesting and tolerably accurate account of the United States Sanitary Commission, in order to show what might be done for the sick and wounded in case of a war. The official history of the Sanitary Commission is being compiled by various hands. The first volume, comprising the general history of the Commission, by Mr. C. J. Stillé, of Philadelphia, is nearly through the press. The second and third volumes, containing accounts of special departments, will be ready for publication in about four and six weeks. The official account of the great Metropolitan Fair will probably be issued early in the fall. This volume, which should have been published two years ago, was delayed from various reasons, principally because no one connected with the fair had leisure enough to write it. It will make a handsome small quarto volume of about 250 pages, illustrated with photographs.

—The Crimea has long been known as the seat of those Jews who, on account of their opposition to the rabbinical traditions, have called themselves the Karaïtes or Biblical Jews. The first authentic account of them was given to the Christian world by the Dutch theologian, Jacob Trigland,

who died in 1705. In 1839, at the suggestion of Prince Voronozof, Governor-General of Odessa, and president of the Archaeological Society, one of the learned Jews of the Crimea, Abraham Firkovitch, assisted by his foster-son, Gabriel, travelled through all the Jewish communities as far as the Caucasus, and collected much valuable material for the history of the Jewish population. In this collection were Bible manuscripts as old as the fifth century, with important prefaces, numerous copies of such prefaces, a parchment roll with three attestations, which was found concealed in the south wall of the synagogue of Mangelis, at Derbend, in the Caucasus, and seven hundred copies of burial inscriptions, one hundred of them being paper impressions. To these, in 1863, the unwearied old Firkovitch added eighteen original inscriptions, which he had sawn from grave-stones at Tchufutkale. Tchufutkale means Jew-city, and in the Middle Ages was notably inhabited by Jews only. In 1261 it made a brave defence against the Genoese. Near it is a churchyard in a little valley called the Vale of Jehoshaphat, where the grave stones were found. The inscriptions here show that the Crimea was peopled with Jews as far back as the Christian era; the thirty oldest grave-stones go from 555 A.D. back to 6 A.D. One of these inscriptions, now in the Asiatic Museum at St. Petersburg, is dated in the year 30 A.D., and reads, "Rabbi Moses Levi, dead in the year 726 of our exile." Another says: "This is the memorial of Buki, son of Isaac, the priest; may he rest in Paradise! To the time of the deliverance of Israel in the year 702 of our exile." The year 702 is three after Christ. Dr. Chwolson, in his paper on these inscriptions, published in 1865, considers that by the exile is meant the Assyrian exile—the exile of the ten tribes. A writer in a recent number of the "London Review" remarks that this is the only instance of the captivity being called by the name exile. He recalls the fact of there being two races of Jews—one fair, with a straight nose, often with reddish hair and blue eyes, of which the traditional face of the Saviour is a type; the other or Western Jews, dark, with large noses, like the Syrians, and remarkably like the sculptured Assyrians in the Ninevite slabs. From this he draws the conclusion that the Western Jews are descendants not of the ten tribes, but of the Babylonians who were taken to Judea to replace them. This, he thinks, is confirmed by inscriptions on some terra-cotta bowls found by Layard in his explorations on the Euphrates, which were Hebrew and Chaldean, but in letters of a very ancient type, and which Mr. Ellis considered "invented to write the cuneiform character in a more cursive and expeditious way." One trouble of this theory is that it requires the Babylonian Jews to have been converted, to have forgotten their origin, and to have supposed themselves original Jews. Perhaps their pertinacious adherence to their acquired religion could be explained by the traditional fervor of new converts.

—Among the new books announced as just published or in press, by W. I. Pooley, are "A History of the Episcopal Church," by Bishop Hopkins, and the English translation of Renan's "Apostles." Mr. Carleton also announces a translation of Renan, a "Life of James Stephens," and "The Mute Singer," by Mrs. Anna Cornelia Ritchie (Mowatt). Hurd & Houghton offer "A Memorial of the Rev. John Keble, with introduction by Bishop Potter;" "Principles of the Law of Contracts," by Judge Metcalf; and Howells' "Venetian Life." Appleton's list contains "Recollections in the United States Army," by Dr. Latimer; "Constitutional History of the United States, mainly from the Speeches of Stephen A. Douglas;" "Taxation," by Sir Morton Peto; and a new illustrated edition of Dana's "Household Book of Poetry."

—M. Octave Delépierre, one of the secretaries of the French Legation at London, and an active and learned member of the Philobiblon Society, has just printed twenty-five copies of a curious and interesting essay, written for that society, in which he gives an account of all those visions of hell and heaven which have been seen at various times by religious enthusiasts. "Le Livre des Visions en l'Enfer et le Ciel décrits par ceux qui les ont vus" is the title of the narrative. These are not mere descriptions of heaven and hell, of which thousands were written during the Middle Ages, some of them with a pretence of scientific knowledge, but visions which the visionary believed himself, in good faith, to have seen not in dreams or in imagination, but by direct sight. They occurred generally while the patient was in a state of catalepsy and seeming death, and when the soul was supposed to be absent from the body. One singular thing about these visions is the absence of all elevation of thought, the punishments described being exaggerations of the ordinary physical tortures met with on earth. Fire, cold, pitch, brimstone, and molten metal play a prominent part among the tortures, as also do beasts and serpents. Only one—that of some Godfrey, in 1321—repudiates the common physical conception of hell. The visions of heaven are few in comparison with those of hell, partly, perhaps, because the pleasures of the blest were imagined with more difficulty than the eter-

nal pains of the wicked. Light is almost the only characteristic of heaven; everything else is vague. One book escaped M. Delepiere's grasp, the "Recent Revelations on Purgatory," published by the Dominicans of Toulouse in 1865, the circulation being strictly confined to the penitents or refractories of that order. It is a pity that the world cannot see on what spiritual food the devotees of modern Catholicism may feed.

SCIENTIFIC.

**SENSE OF TOUCH, PAIN, AND TEMPERATURE.**—The perception of temperature and pain appears to be different in character from that of the ordinary impressions made upon the organs of touch. Pain is not merely an exaggeration of touch. Our perceptions become imperfect just in proportion as the impressions are painful in their character. The mere touch of the blade of a knife may be distinctly and correctly perceived, but when the skin is cut there is no longer a perception of the knife, but a sensation of pain only. Intensely hot and intensely cold substances are not perceived to be different, but both are similarly painful. M. Beau has given numerous facts to prove that sensibility to pain may be utterly abolished while common sensibility still remains. The surgeon, in operating upon partially etherized persons, has not unfrequently noticed this; the patient remaining perfectly conscious, seeing and feeling the knife or other instruments, but not suffering from the application of them. Weber found by experiment that the sense of temperature is more acute in the left hand than in the right, while the sense of touch is undoubtedly most acute in the latter. If the two hands, previously of the same temperature, be plunged into separate basins of water, that in which the left hand is plunged will be felt as the warmer, even though its temperature is somewhat lower than that of the other. Dr. Spring, in the "Medico-Chirurgical Review" for April, has recorded the history of an interesting case which gives support to the above views. A woman, aged sixty, after exposure to cold partially lost the sensibility of the right half of the body, including the head, though there was no loss of motion. On the paralyzed side she became insensible to pain and to the effects of a change of temperature, while ordinary tactile impressions were perceived as usual. She could feel the slightest touch on the affected side, and when the eyes were closed could, through the aid of touch, pick up a pin from the floor. Impressions of weight and contact could be accurately perceived; the hand resting on the table, if a given weight were placed on the palm, the removal of a small portion of it was at once noticed, with no other indication than that coming through the sense of touch. Yet, while washing her hands, though she distinctly felt the water flowing over the paralyzed one, she could not tell, from the impression made upon it, whether the water was hot or cold. Neither the pricking of pins nor pinching was perceived in the slightest degree, and when standing before the fire she was incapable of feeling warmth on the right half of her body.

**PARALYSIS OF THE RIGHT SIDE AND THE LOSS OF SPEECH.**—One of the most remarkable results recently brought to the notice of physiologists is the observation of Broca, that when paralysis exists and is attended with the loss of speech or of articulate language, one or both, the paralysis is, in nearly every case, on the right side of the body, and is, consequently, dependent upon disease or injury of the left side of the brain; for it is universally admitted that disease or injuries of one side of the brain, if they produce paralysis at all, do so on the side of the body opposite to that of the disease or injury. In order to prevent misapprehension as to the sense in which the terms "articulate language" and "speech" are used, it may be stated that articulation is the mere utterance of words, and that speech is the expression of thoughts or ideas which may be expressed by means of articulate words, or by signs of any kind. It must also be borne in mind that loss of articulation does not necessarily depend upon disease of the brain, but may be the result of merely local causes, such as a faulty action of the muscles of the larynx or of the throat, tongue, or lips. A man may be unable to communicate his thoughts by means of vocal sounds, but he will nevertheless do so by writing or gestures. Broca has shown, and in each case verified his observations by post-mortem examinations, that the loss of articulate language may be the result of disease of the brain, and that, when it is so and no other difficulty exists, the injury or disease is always on the left side of the brain. Of twenty cases, carefully studied, all confirmed this view. Dr. Hughlings Jackson, in the reports of the London Hospital, has made a careful record of thirty-four cases of loss of speech, in thirty-one of which there was paralysis of the right side. In the other three the paralysis was on the left side, and consequently exceptional. Dr. Jackson's cases may, therefore, be said to confirm largely the views of Broca. The faculty of speech, as well as that of articulate sounds, may be lost to different degrees; but neither the sounds nor any other signs which a patient

remains capable of making will serve to communicate thoughts or ideas correctly. Words may be uttered, but they will be applied in the wrong way and names to the wrong things, as when one woman called a dinner a "chair," and another called a chair a "potato." One person was offered a rose and asked if she could smell as well as usual, when she answered, "I can't say it so much," instead of "I can't smell so well." A woman who had loss of speech was asked to write her name, which she attempted to do with the following result: "Sunnis Sicla Satreni." Dr. Jackson, from motives of delicacy, withholds her real name, but says it bore no resemblance whatever to the name written. When asked to write her address, she did it as follows: "Sunnes Nut Ts Merr Tinn—lain;" yet this woman was intelligent and knew persons and things, as did others who could not express themselves intelligibly, or, if sometimes intelligibly, still very incorrectly.

**PRUSSIAN SALT.**—The history of mining enterprise is filled with examples of the great influence which a single undertaking will sometimes exert upon the business of a country. A salt mine which was opened a few years since near Magdeburg, by the Prussian Government, is a case in point, and is one of peculiar interest because of its extreme simplicity. Some twelve or fifteen years ago Prussia consumed, for culinary purposes alone, 257,000,000 pounds of salt per annum, the proportion being about fifteen pounds for each and every inhabitant of the kingdom; a proportion, by the way, which, in keeping with the lethargic spirit of the country, had remained fixed and unvarying during a quarter of a century. The amount above mentioned was employed solely for household purposes, for the very considerable quantities used in agriculture and by various manufacturing establishments were not taken into account. The amount of salt produced by Prussia at the same time, at the various saline springs of the country, was only 214,000,000 pounds, or, roughly estimated, scarcely seventy-five per cent. of the quantity consumed within the kingdom. More than 50,000,000 pounds of salt had, therefore, to be imported into Prussia every year. It was in the hope of doing away with this condition of things that the Government proceeded to excavate the mine in question. To what extent this hope has been realized may be inferred from the following facts: The salt was reached about ten years since and has been actively worked ever since. It may, therefore, be safely assumed that the new order of things has by this time arrived at a condition of tolerably stable equilibrium. There is, at the same time, no evidence that the other works at the old salt springs have been given up. According to official statements there was sold from the single mine here in question, in the year 1862, 101,000,000 pounds of salt; in 1863, 152,000,000 pounds; and in 1864, 201,000,000 pounds. In 1865 the quantity sold appears to have been less, though no official statement of it has as yet come to hand. Some observers estimate the amount as low as 166,000,000 pounds. However this may be, it will be seen at once that so far from importing salt, Prussia is now in a position to export this commodity. Large quantities of it are in fact now exported, chiefly to the smaller German States, to Holland, and to Holstein. At one time it was even anticipated that the Prussian salt would be able to gain a foothold in the English market, but the hope has not yet been realized. The cost of mining the salt is very small, and it is cheaply transported to the ocean, by water, by way of the river Elbe.

SPENCER'S BIOLOGY.\*

"THE aim of this work is to set forth the general truths of biology as illustrative of, and as interpreted by, the laws of evolution; the special truths being introduced only so far as is needful for elucidation of the general truths." This first volume consists of three parts: the first, called the "Data of Biology," treats of the elements, the materials, and their properties which enter into the processes of life, and the ideas which determine its definition. The second, called the "Inductions of Biology," treats of the various fundamental facts and classes of facts observed in organic life in general, including the main principles of biology as an inductive science. The third part, called the "Evolution of Life," is a discussion of the bearing of the general facts of biology on the question of the origin of species. In his second volume Mr. Spencer will "pass to the more special phenomena of development as displayed in the structures and functions of individual organisms." Two other works, the "Principles of Psychology" and the "Principles of Sociology," will complete the labor which Mr. Spencer has proposed for himself, namely, the survey of the sciences for the purpose of including all human knowledge under the conceptions set forth in his "First Principles," and for establishing a universal science or philosophical

\* "The Principles of Biology." By Herbert Spencer. Vol. I. New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1866.

system on the basis of the inductive sciences, interpreted by certain forms or laws of thought which Mr. Spencer assumes to have an *a priori* validity and a universal application. These forms are given in the mechanical conceptions of matter, motion, and force, and the *a priori* truths supposed to be implicated in them. Every fact of science is to be represented in such mechanic terms.

As a philosophical theory this system has also, of course, a theological as well as a scientific side. It proposes a cosmological theory of the dependence of the world of phenomena on its unknown cause. The unknowable, hitherto represented as the Creator producing the world from a non-phenomenal existence, or from nothing; or pictured as the Great Artificer building an order out of chaos, is by Mr. Spencer represented as the cause, the unknown cause, of evolution, continuously producing the worlds and all the forms of life. Evolution is regarded as the profoundest conception which the human mind can compass of the divine agency in creation. The first existence, or the chaos whence the world and its order arise, is the homogeneous or undifferentiated matter of the universe, with its primitive forces and their necessary laws. Creation, or the connection between the first cause of things and the last effects of nature, consists of the processes by which the world passes from the homogeneous to the heterogeneous. This is the direction in which creative power is exerted. It is the unfolding of the properties of matter and force. These terms, matter and force, must be understood, however, in a sense broad enough to include all first existences which are cognizable, and to exclude the antithesis between the metaphysical and incomprehensible entities "matter" and "mind." The phenomena of mind are also to be formulated in terms of matter, motion, and force; but it is matter in a generalized mechanical sense that Mr. Spencer takes as his type of the first cognizable existence.

If we must have a cosmology—if we cannot restrain our speculative faculties to a less ambitious exercise—then that theory of the universe in its totality which agrees best with the facts of science and the ideas with which science has familiarized instructed minds in modern times, is the one most likely to gain credence. But science itself stands in no need of such illumination. The leading idea of Mr. Spencer's system, the thread on which he displays a mine of scientific lore, with unsurpassed abilities in scientific speculation, is too weak to sustain its load. Not that his facts in any degree militate against his thesis: they only fail to prove what is peculiar to it. They simply "illustrate" what Mr. Spencer means by his law.

Different portions of Mr. Spencer's writings have very unequal merit. It is his ambition to produce a philosophy; but his strength lies in his clear summary expositions of the widely various departments of scientific facts and generalizations, with which he has most industriously and laboriously made himself acquainted, and in the ingenuity he displays in the very suggestive and instructive generalizations and colligations of the facts which he presents. In such portions of his writings he is clear and strong, though somewhat too easily impressed by a mere analogy, and sometimes mistaking a figure of speech for a matter of fact. But when called upon to rise into the region of pure abstractions in setting forth his system, and dealing with the ideas to the illustration of which he has devoted so much study, his writing becomes vague and weak. He is obviously not so able in the treatment of the higher abstractions as in the proximate generalizations of science. Where the philosopher would appear at his best, Mr. Spencer becomes very tedious. His grasp of the mechanical ideas by which he would interpret the facts of biology is quite unlike what the masters of mechanical philosophy have shown in the mechanical sciences. His application of mechanical ideas to the organic sciences very much resembles the use made of similar ideas in physics before the time of Galileo. His principle of the "Persistence of Force," which in his book of "First Principles" he supposes to be the same as the mechanical doctrine of the conservation of force—only a better name for it—has none of the technical precision and definiteness which belong to this doctrine; and the important conclusions, which he deduces somewhat summarily from it, really flow, so far as they are facts, from the more general philosophical doctrine, "the Law of Causation." Mr. Spencer's "Persistence of Force" is in fact only a mechanical name for this fundamental postulate of science. In the same way, to suit his system, he renames other principles of science. Mr. Darwin's law of "Natural Selection" he designedly translates "Indirect Equilibration," while the principle of the improvements of adaptation by use he calls "Direct Equilibration."

If this mechanical terminology really added anything to the resources of science; if Mr. Spencer could deduce anything from his mechanical principles which could confirm any inductive conclusion or direct any inductive enquiry, which are not already confirmed or determined by philosophical principles without a mechanical dress, we should welcome his philosophy most cordially. As it is, this mechanical dress seems to us superfluous.

But to return to Mr. Spencer's lucid expositions of science. No account of the argument for the transmutation hypothesis has appeared to us abler or clearer than part third of this volume. Not even Mr. Darwin's remarkable book presents the evidence so conclusively. But Mr. Spencer appears to value this part of his book and, indeed, all his disquisitions on the "special truths" of science only in so far as they "illustrate the general truths" of his philosophy. He evidently prides himself on his weakness, and is quite unconscious of his real strength. All that his studies prove, or tend to prove, is "that the groups within groups" of related races, "which constitute the animal and vegetal kingdoms, have arisen by direct descent, multiplication, and divergence—that is," he adds, "by evolution." But evolution implies more in Mr. Spencer's philosophy than the transmutation hypothesis postulates. It implies and necessitates progress, a progress which is inherent in the order of things, and is more than the continuity and community of causation which the physical sciences postulate. It borrows an idea from the moral sciences, the idea of an end. Mr. Spencer's philosophy is not teleological in the narrower sense of the word; that is, it does not postulate specific ends—like the conditions of human happiness—as determining the order in nature; but it is none the less as a cosmological theory—or a theory of the universe in its totality—charged with a mission. It contemplates the universe in its totality as having an intelligible order, a relation of beginning and end—a development. All that the transmutation hypothesis presupposes is continuity and uniformity in the temporal order of nature. Mr. Spencer admits that paleontology, the only inductive science which can testify directly on the subject, is inconclusive. So far as inductive evidence is concerned, it is doubtful whether there has been any progress in the types of organic life. That the present forms of life are derived from comparatively few forms living in the remote past, is probable from the argument from classification; but that these forms were the only types of life then in existence, or that the extinction of species has not kept pace with their multiplication, cannot be concluded from the geological record. Transmutation, then, is as well fitted as any word to express all that the evidence of paleontology, the geographical distribution, or the classification of animals and plants tends to prove. The argument for progressive development from embryology is merely analogical. To be valid it requires a much closer resemblance in essential points between the terms of comparison, namely, between the individual life with its limits and definite steps of progress, and the indeterminate continuity of life in a race. Evolution expresses more than the evidence warrants, and more than many transmutationists are disposed to admit. "It may be thought paradoxical," says Lyell, "that writers who are most in favor of transmutation (Mr. C. Darwin and Dr. J. Hooker, for example) are nevertheless among those who are most cautious, and one would say timid, in their mode of espousing the doctrine of progression; while, on the other hand, the most zealous advocates of progression are often not very vehement opponents of transmutation." . . . "The true explanation of the seeming anomaly is this, that no one can believe in transmutation who is not profoundly convinced that all we know in paleontology is as nothing compared to what we have yet to learn, and they who regard the record as too fragmentary, and our acquaintance with the fragments which are extant as so rudimentary, are apt to be astounded at the confidence placed by the progressionists in data which must be defective in the extreme."

Mr. Spencer is both a transmutationist and a progressionist, but he is the latter on *a priori* grounds chiefly. No one has set forth and illustrated the imperfections of the geological record more forcibly; but, instead of following the cautious naturalists, and suspending his judgment in the lack of evidence, he takes advantage, as it were, of this lack to reach his conclusion by the "high priori road."

A philosophy like Mr. Spencer's is doubtless a great *desideratum* to many, nay, to most minds, to enable them to receive the facts and hypotheses of modern science hospitably. A philosophy once received is a potent source of credence, and makes it easy to admit asserted facts and to entertain hypotheses. That the general belief in supernatural agencies has proved the miracles, and filled the world with fairies, devils, and witches, cannot be doubted. That a general doctrine which excludes all supernatural agency will enable the inductions and hypotheses of science to take a firmer hold on the faith of mankind, is equally certain; but this is not the method in which the facts and theories of science have been established. An intellectual virtue very rare and difficult to attain, the power to go out from all philosophies and preconceptions into the world of observation and fact—the power to suspend the judgment and to scrutinize facts on their own merits—this is the virtue of the scientific philosopher, and the potent cause of the great change in the intellectual life of modern times.

## GOLDWIN SMITH ON AMERICA.\*

WE do the American public a service in calling attention to a little book from which it cannot help getting both pleasure and profit. It is an address by Professor Goldwin Smith, delivered before the Union and Emancipation Society of Manchester, and now printed under the title of "The Civil War in America." But it is something more than this title would seem to indicate; it really is a brief account of the people of the free States, of the spirit of their political system, of their social theories and practice, by a philosophic student of history, his defence of all these against the attacks commonly made on them by the friends of absolutism and aristocracy, and his exposition of their virtues and defects.

The literary merits of the work are such as by themselves make it worthy the perusal of most readers and the study of most writers. Perhaps there is hardly one among living English authors whose writing, while it is so free from the display of art, is more obviously the product of the highest art, or rather, to speak more exactly and to avoid a word whose meaning is not unmistakably good, the product, we will say, of the highest discipline and culture. Precisely this praise cannot often be given even to fascinating writers. Dr. Newman, for example, delightful as he is, sometimes allows the graceful ease and frankness of his discourse to approach very nearly or to overpass the verge of carelessness; and this is either want of art or it is something very like artifice. And is not the accomplished Matthew Arnold obnoxious to the severer of these two accusations? Not seldom he surprises the reader with what seem very doubtful phrases, such, for instance, as "split the difference," "much on a par," "the best style going," etc., obeying, perhaps, a precept of Joubert's, and with the too obvious design of tempering the natural daintiness of his style and giving it simple directness. And, generally, nowadays, when the periods of our fathers are going into contempt and oblivion, and the loose sentence is laboriously constructed, and slang finds defenders in prefaces, the tendency in composition is either to forms with too little of art or a little of artifice, carelessness or an affection of it. This by the way, however. We praise Professor Smith's style for its positive qualities. For a full enjoyment of its excellences a special examination may be requisite, there is such fulness of matter and the medium through which the matter is seen is so transparent. Some of its excellences, again, are of the striking kind and not to be missed, as in the phrase "a neutrality of Alabamas"—an epigrammatic condensation of several hundreds, perhaps, of recent Anti-English editorials and speeches; or in this sentence, with its allusion to communism, its rebuke of nominal Christianity, and the distinction it draws between these and influences truly Christian, "which, whenever they decisively prevail, without taking away the landmarks of property, transmute proprietorship into duty." And for its easy force, its simplicity, and plain elegance, and never-failing dignity, his style is secure of the admiration and deserves the attention due a master's work.

Of Professor Smith's ability to speak upon the subject which he chose, and to say something valuable to us as well as to his countrymen, there can be no doubt. We were living, to be sure, in the thick of the conflict which he describes, while he looked on; but his eye was educated to the task, and he was able to study calmly the nature and the working of that spirit of our age and country which, though it has made us the very men we are, moulded us without our knowledge.

That spirit, he says, is not free democracy. Democracy is a political arrangement merely. What all America will one day be, what the North has always been, what she was during the war and is now, that she was and is and will be by virtue of the spirit of free Christianity. Not Christianity paralyzed by political alliances, represented by "a state clergy who are legally bound over against conviction," but living, expansive, growing; not Christianity imprisoned in narrow sectarian creeds, but full of faith in God and faith in man also, full of the spirit of progress and of hope in the future of humanity. The operation of this power, at least in our New World, happily untrammelled, he traces in all our social and political life. In this he finds the secret of the American eagerness for vital truths in religion and contempt of ecclesiastical questions; this makes us demand popular education; it is the reason of our clemency to rebels; it makes our criminal codes so mild; to this must be attributed the honor paid to labor, the absence of class divisions, the general respect for law, the courtesy to women, the kindness to servants, all the truly distinctive features of American life. Our democratic institutions are but the application of this spirit to the concerns of government. This argument he enforces by illustrations drawn from what he himself saw in the North, and by the contrast of all which a spirit

essentially different notoriously produced in the ignorant, barbarous, and oligarchical South.

The darker shades, also, in the bright picture which he saw are faithfully reproduced. But it is not our purpose to do more than commend the essay to the attention of the reader, especially of the reader who seeks to understand the meaning of his time and is glad of light from whatever source. Slight as the work is, it seems to us to merit the name of history—history written on the best of the three methods. Not a book of annals to supply the bones of the pictorial, dramatic history, it is able to supply the soul of such a work in many volumes, and the student must find it all the better for wanting the body.

Nor is it only of American life and history that this English praise of America speaks; of England, also, we learn something, or, rather, are confirmed in what we knew and felt before. It was impossible to read this eloquent statement of the ideas loved by Americans, and this earnest and confident defence of them as the ideas right in the present and sure of the future, without seeing, and rejoicing to see, that the true Englishman and the true American may interchange citizenship, yet neither forsake the only real allegiance he can owe—fealty to the cause of liberty and human progress. Elsewhere, the camps are not broken; but they and we are already engaged, and what both fight for is the same.

*Lange's Commentary on Mark and Luke.* Edited by Dr. W. G. T. Shedd, Dr. P. Schaff, and C. C. Starbuck. (Chas. Scribner & Co., New York.)—Dr. Lange's Commentary, when it is completed, will no doubt be superior to any other now in general use. No pains have been spared to make it thoroughly exhaustive of the matter which it has in hand. Such of its conclusions as are not purely individual are no doubt pretty much the same as if the work had been prepared a century ago. But the fact that these conclusions are no longer universally accepted is not concealed, and sometimes the objections to them are so fairly stated that the objection rather than the argument against it will commend itself to the intelligent reader. The second volume of this commentary has now been translated and enriched with many editorial notes. These notes, Mr. Starbuck's especially, are very valuable, and almost never fail to light up the darkness of Dr. Osterlee's interpretations, which are sometimes so far-fetched as to appear almost ridiculous. The volume on Matthew, published a year ago, has been very favorably received, and there is no apparent reason why the present volume should not be received in the same manner. As the result of a collective effort a certain amount of dulness is to be expected. A work of this sort coming from an individual mind would have much more enthusiasm. But what the Commentary lacks in this respect it gains, no doubt, as the consensus of a great number of intelligent and learned men. The structure of the volume would be a matter for great praise but for the suspicion that the structure of the gospels, on which it professes to be based, does not justify anything so methodical. This suspicion attaches to the treatment of the second gospel much more than to that of the third. The life of Jesus as there represented consists of a series of contests and victories alternating with periods of rest. A great deal of ingenuity is necessary to make this appear, but the resources of the commentator are immense. Many will be carried away by his idea, but not a few will think that it is better not to overload the gospels with so much machinery. The treatment of Luke is less liable to this objection. There is an introduction to each gospel, in which questions of age, authorship, etc., are discussed with considerable fairness. The critical and exegetical portions of the work will be of use to every class of minds, although somewhat overshadowed by the dogmatic purpose of the book. The "doctrinal and practical" portions are more doctrinal and less practical than we could wish. The homiletical remarks contain a great amount of beautiful suggestion. But, despite of all the merits of this work, we would not advise any person to read the New Testament only from its pages, for there are many things in the New Testament which do not need to be explained, and which only lose by explanation. Appeals to the heart ought not to be converted into the language of the head. But Dr. Lange's Commentary should be measured by the standard of success which he has chosen. It is professedly an attempt to find in the New Testament the golden mean between Romanism on the one hand and Liberalism on the other, and it is difficult to see how such a purpose could have been more resolutely carried out.

*A Text-Book on Physiology, for the use of Schools and Colleges.* By John William Draper, M.D., LL.D. (New York : Harper & Bros.)—This book, as the author tells us, is mainly a condensation of his larger work, well known to the medical profession. The manuals of physiology for popular instruction hitherto published are chargeable with frequent errors and signal deficiencies. From these the present one is comparatively free. For, although the author reiterates many of his favorite speculations, he is not guilty of ignoring important topics and of treating others with careless superficiality, as has been so commonly done. This thorough treatment is a merited tribute to the increasing interest in science manifest in the non-professional community. As just intimated, we find the writer's peculiar views concisely, yet clearly, stated; and this will give the book a value even to the medical student, who may not have access to the more extensive treatise. But its value is seriously impaired by the too intimate blending of speculative views with truths well established and acknowledged by physiologists at large. This objection has the greater weight as the class for whom the manual is intended have not, for the most part, the means of estimating aright the author's theories as compared with those of other distinguished workers in the same field. The need, therefore, is still unmet for a popular hand-book in this department, that shall state what is known in language which,

\* "The Civil War in America. An Address read at the last meeting of the Manchester Union and Emancipation Society. By Goldwin Smith." London: Simpkin, Marshall & Co. 1866. Pp. 98.

without becoming puerile, may be less technical, yet no less accurate. Notwithstanding these defects, the present appears to us the most available manual for its purpose that we have yet seen, provided it fall into the hands of a competent teacher. The cuts and the printing are good, and the size of the volume renders it convenient for study and reference.

*Enone: a Tale of Slave Life in Rome.* (New York: John Bradburn.)—The reader who opens this book with the expectation of finding in it illustrations of slave life, as a distinctive social feature of ancient Rome, will probably be disappointed. In spite of its array of sonorous Latin names, and a liberal use of the classical "properties" which such books as Becker's "Gallus" supply, the story might be adapted to any other condition of society than that selected, or to any other place or time; as well to New York in the nineteenth century as to Rome under the Empire. It is spun out to a tedious length, and the characters deliver long speeches at each other with such painful iteration as almost to impress one with the conviction that they are talking against time. The descriptive portions are not less diffuse. We should judge the book to be the production of a young author (a woman, evidently) having a superficial knowledge of classical literature, decided fondness for fine writing, and a considerable facility in depicting character. The last qualification is that which alone redeems "Enone" from utter dulness. The characters are really well drawn and contrasted, and had the story been curtailed to one-third of its present length, would have made an impression upon the mind as decided as it is now vague and uncertain. But they are not Roman, nor even antique, because the author has had no true conception, so far as the present production indicates, of the essential conditions or characteristics of antique life. If "Enone" is a first attempt, as seems not improbable, the author is capable of better things, provided she chooses a less ambitious walk in fictitious literature. The number of genuine classical novels is still small.

#### THE WARLIKE PREPARATIONS IN ITALY.

FLORENCE, May 19, 1866.

LAST evening the telegram ran thus: "The Austrian Government has received confidential information touching the programme of the congress, and has answered that, with regard to the duchies, it could not admit universal suffrage, but only a vote of the states. Touching federal reforms, the basis of the Prussian project must be excluded. Touching Venice, it demands what are the territorial compensations that will be offered." This morning it reads thus: "The Austrian Government demands a territorial compensation in Germany for its renunciation of its rights over the Duchies of Elbe, and refuses, meanwhile, to discuss the proposition of the cession of the Venetian provinces." These two telegraphic despatches arriving within twelve hours, may give you an idea of the state of suspense in which the public mind is kept. One day the war seems certain and imminent, the next there seems every possibility of a pacific arrangement based on the cession of Venice with the four fortresses razed to the ground in exchange for Silesia. Both governments, however, have borne in mind the old Tuscan proverb, "If you desire peace, prepare for war," and at the present moment both may be said to be prepared. Austria has concentrated 200,000 men in Venice and the Tyrol, *i.e.*, 10,000 at Mantua, Borgo-forte, and Ostiglia; 30,000 at Verona; 20,000 at Padua; 40,000 at Rovigo; 6,000 at Legnago; 15,000 at Venice and Chioggia; 6,000 at Peschiera; 20,000 at and around Friuli; 30,000 in the Tyrol, and 50,000 at Trieste and Gorizia. The utmost care is taken to strengthen Pola, which is the only military port of the empire. Here, in 1848 and 1859, the Austrian fleet found a safe refuge from the attacks of the Sardinian, Italian, and French navy. Since then it has been reinforced by formidable fortifications; around the city three fortified lines are erected; the first is composed of a series of iron-clad batteries whose fire crosses the passage leading to the Gulf of Pola; the second consists of a series of fortifications built on the rocks at the mouth of the bay. In order to enter the bay, the enemy's ships must have passed through the fire from the batteries of Brioni and Veruda and the fire of the fortifications on the rocks; the third line is composed of detached forts built round the bay, which defend the front entrance to the bay and all the military edifices erected along the shore. All the towns along the coast which offer safe anchorage, such as Capodistria and Pirano, Cittanova and Rovigno, are also fortified. Aware of the immense importance of the railroad of Nabresina (in Trieste) as of those in Istria, and aware that the hostile populations will attempt everywhere to destroy them, detachments of troops are placed all along the lines. The Government is also hastening to profit by the stipulations of the treaty of Paris as to the method to be adopted towards merchant vessels and other private ships at sea, respecting both when the enemy agrees to do the same. The Italian Government is by no means inferior in energy, and its efforts are facilitated by the unparalleled enthusiasm of the army, the national guard, the volunteers, and the populations.

At the present moment 220,000 troops are ready to be placed in battle array, being either massed along the frontiers or at easy distances. It was at first decided that 50,000 soldiers should be distributed throughout the middle and southern provinces, to protect the army from clerical and reac-

tionary enemies in the rear; but the national guard pleaded so earnestly that the defense of the interior should be entirely confided to them, that the Government had almost resolved on trying the experiment, when the menacing attitude resumed by brigandage in various portions of the Neapolitan provinces rendered the detention of a considerable body of troops necessary. At Melfi, a town of 9,500 inhabitants, Crocco, at the head of 100 men, has just murdered the syndic and sub-prefect, and the 4th battalion of bersaglieri, already embarked for upper Italy, were landed at Naples and sent against the murderers. Teano is also menaced by a large band of brigands, and against these the 39th battalion of bersaglieri are despatched. They will make short work of them, I fancy, especially as the new law on public security enables the local authorities to arrest all the aiders and abettors of these fiends, as the soldiers are furious at being balked of their chances of a campaign against Austria, and the officers talked of sending in their resignation *en masse*. But let us admit that it will be necessary to retain 50,000 national troops in order to keep our internal foes, whose headquarters are at Rome, in check; that the 50,000 conscripts of the April levy are only partially mustered and drilled; that the second categories of 1842-43 are only just summoned and have never been drilled; that another 60,000 must be deducted for the service of depots, military establishments, hospitals, commissariat, staff, etc., Italy can yet bring 300,000 men into the field—three hundred thousand well-trained, well-disciplined Italians—all anxious to distinguish themselves against Austria. "Our army will perform miracles," wrote General Bixio this morning from Piacenza to a friend, and his testimony, as an ex-Garibaldian, is worth something. The artillery may be estimated at 400 guns. There seems to be a great deficiency of horses: 20,000 were demanded, as yet but 10,000 are purchased; the prices have risen in proportion. The preliminary work of the commission of volunteers is almost completed. Colonel Corte starts to-day for the depots of Northern Italy and Sicily, established at Carno and Varne; Colonel Nicotera starts for the depots of Southern Italy, established at Bari and Barletta. Already more than the 20,000 needed for the twenty battalions are inscribed in the divers cities of the realm. Milan alone sends 3,695. General Garibaldi is on the whole satisfied with the arrangements. He intends to remain at Caprera until the battalions are called out, and is by no means certain yet that there will be actually war. He declines the formation of the ten regiments into two brigades and wishes only to have colonels under him, unless the number of battalions be augmented. He wishes Colonel Corte to be the head of his staff, Colonel Acerbi head of the commissariat staff, and Dr. Bertani head of the ambulance. The two former decline the honor and prefer the command of a regiment, or even of a battalion. Besides the twenty battalions there are to be two corps of Genoese and Lombard sharpshooters, commanded by the chief of '59 and '60, Antonio Masto, and a corps of guides on horseback, commanded by Missari, who has just told me that the Government has refused him a single horse, averring that they cannot muster enough for themselves. This will make the corps very aristocratic and exclusive, as none can enter who are not sufficiently wealthy to purchase their own steeds.

Mazzini has issued a manifesto, entitled "The War." Differing from certain members of his party who, through his organ the *Uniti Italiane*, published in Milan, have maintained that the Italian democracy ought to take part in no war that is not initiated by the people, the Apostle of Italian Unity insists that the entire country ought to rise and render the war, with allies or without allies, inevitable. "The war for the emancipation of Venice was, up to the present moment, a duty: now it is a necessity. To-day all Italy is Venice: the life, the future, the honor of the nation await their ransom between the Alps and the lagunes. The war ought to be exclusively Italian."

The *Nazione* of Florence publishes a long article on "What the American women did for their wounded," and committees are being formed all over the country in imitation of your "Soldiers' Aid Societies." If your kind countrywomen would help us a little with their experience and surplus stock we should be grateful indeed. When I remember the careless way in which our wounded were thrown across mules or jolted in springless carriages in 1860, and read the accounts of your hospital cars and slung elastic beds, I feel that I would do a great deal to get one or even an exact model of one over here!

The decree for the formation of the volunteer battalions is just issued. This news has rendered the public incredulous of pacific negotiations. "Può darsi," they say, "ma non è possibile!" The Austrian legion destined for Mexico has been disbanded in obedience to the threatening note of your Government. A number of the soldiers are incorporated in the Austrian army, but the captain of the Tampico, in the port of Trieste, refuses to allow his passengers to land, as their passage is not paid!

J. W.

*Articles on any of the subjects usually discussed in this journal will be received from any quarter. If used, they will be liberally paid for; if rejected, they will be returned to the writers on the receipt of the requisite amount of postage stamps.*

*All Communications which pertain to the literary management of THE NATION should be addressed to the Editor.*

#### WHAT THE FENIAN WAR REALLY IS.

THERE is no question that a very large portion of the apathy with which the Fenian performances are regarded by the public is due to the not unnatural enjoyment which people take in the spectacle of the Canadians suffering from raids. The St. Albans affair and the state of alarm in which the inhabitants of the American border were kept for nearly two years, by the threats of bands of Confederate vagabonds congregated in the Canadian towns, have made a deep impression on the public mind, aggravated, of course, by the "judicial" proceedings at Montreal in which Judge Coursol figured. It would be difficult to find in modern history a case of more wanton and shameless connivance at a great crime on the part of a highly civilized and professedly Christian community. Coursol was, no doubt, a corrupt and ignorant man; but he would never have ventured to parade his ignorance and corruption as he did if he had not well known that his proceedings had the secret sympathy of his neighbors. The Canadians tried to flatter themselves that when General Dix's order was overruled by Mr. Lincoln and the Young affair blew over, that all was over. But the press here warned them the real mischief of the St. Albans affair, and of the impunity enjoyed by the rebel conspirators on Canadian soil, did not lie in the amount of material damage suffered by the United States, but in the fact that they laid the foundation for endless trouble in the future. The Canadians laughed at these warnings then; they now know what they mean. There may be powers in the world strong enough to treat all international obligations with contempt; but even Great Britain is not amongst the number, though she have Canada at her back. The retribution may not always come in the shape of open war, but it generally comes somehow. Roberts and Sweeney are rather contemptible instruments to serve as avengers of international perfidy; but in this instance they do the work pretty faithfully.

That this feeling of soreness on the part of the public here is pretty deep may be inferred from what we have been submitting to for the past month or two. We have witnessed, without the slightest formal indication of dissatisfaction, the creation of an avowedly foreign government in this city, with the various departments and bureaus necessary for carrying on military operations against a power with which we are at peace. We have seen it commission officers, issue bonds, and actually raise an army, open recruiting offices, and collect arms and ammunition, and assemble great bodies of men at rendezvous on our soil, for the purpose of commencing hostilities. We have had the commander-in-chief of this army travelling to and fro on our railroads, with large bodies of men marching on our territory under his command, and have actually seen our lines of telegraph cut by his orders, in order to prevent our own officers and police obtaining information of his movements. We have seen one district-attorney flinch from arresting him, fearing he could not summon force sufficient for his purpose, and have heard the same general-in-chief, when actually engaged in the breach of our laws, warn him that he would come to grief if he meddled with him. We have seen a hostile column leave our soil, invade that of our neighbors, fight on it, and then fall back into our territory again, and the foreign government which he professed to obey issuing a general order, in New York, promoting the man to a brigadiership for his gallantry.

These things are hard to bear. No civilized government ever bore them before from any power not vastly stronger than itself. Austria used to do this sort of thing in the small Italian states, and Napoleon used to do it in those European kingdoms over which he had set viceroys of his own. Of course, we should not have borne with it if the absurdity of the performance had not been so monstrous. Most Americans, who paid any attention to the Fenians during the last year, thought it was a "little game" with which Irishmen not troubled with much occupation were amusing themselves. We think it very unfortunate that this impression prevailed

so widely, because it enabled the Robertses and the Sweeneys to persuade their dupes, who are mostly ignorant persons who have no means of getting at the real state of American feeling, that the apathy they witnessed on the part of the public and of the law officers indicated sympathy with their enterprise, and assured them of impunity in carrying it out. They were thus enabled to strip thousands of poor men and women of large sums of hard-earned money, to add to the existing disturbance of the industry of the country by drawing off large bodies of young men to the border, and finally—what we consider more serious than all else—to set before the hundreds of thousands of ignorant foreigners who reach our shore every year a most dangerous example of the way in which the law may be openly defied and contemned in their adopted country. If the Fenian performances of the last six months have not done much to weaken respect for law amongst that now immense class of our population who are still unaccustomed to the self-restraint in which Americans are bred, German and Irish human nature must have undergone some radical change. We greatly fear the Fenian organization is not the last attempt we shall witness in this country to supersede or set aside the national authority, by bodies of men having little or no interest in the national welfare and using the national flag and the American name as a temporary convenience.

It may have been on some accounts wise for the President to abstain from interference till the thing had come to a head. It may be that the suppression of the movement will meet with a support from the public now which it would not have met with had it taken place any sooner. But we do hold that, let the public support it or not, this interference ought to have taken place before blood was shed. We are a Christian people, and no matter what the Canadians have done or left undone, we owe it to our own souls not to let bands of ruffians leave our soil for the purpose of killing their young men and desolating their homes. There are some forms of retaliation to which we cannot descend without guilt, and connivance at or sufferance of Fenian raids is one of them. No matter what sympathy we may have with the wrongs of Ireland, no invasion of Canada by people like these Fenians can be anything but brigandage on a great scale. O'Neill's "battle" was murder—simple murder; Sweeney's battles, if he ever fights any, will be murder—murder committed by the offscourings of our population, led on by adventurers who are ready to fight under any flag for pay and "pickings." People ought to remember this. Calling Sweeney a "general" and Roberts a "President," and their followers "brigades" and "regiments," does not alter their real character. They are, by the law of nations and our law and God's law, still brigands. We say by God's law, because even supposing war to have the Divine sanction, nothing is lawful war which is not undertaken with a reasonable hope of success, or in defense against an attack. But the liberation of Ireland through the killing of Canadians and ravaging of their homes, is just as impracticable as through the invasion of Jamaica or British Guiana—a wild, senseless scheme, which no men of conscience, or honor, or intelligence would enter upon. No Irishman of character or position in either hemisphere has anything to do with the movement, and there is nobody who does not know that the fate of that unfortunate island under the rule of the Sweeneys and O'Mahonys would be ten-fold worse than it is ever likely to be again under that of Great Britain, even supposing the present fair promise of reform to be blighted.

#### BRIGANDAGE IN NEW YORK.

SOME of our readers may remember that during the last year a night attack was made by a party in disguise upon a house in Oneida County, New York, resulting in the murder of one of the inmates and the severe wounding of another. The house itself was set on fire, but was not destroyed. The telegram which announced this news made the extraordinary statement that the midnight assassins were believed to be highly respectable young men, and that the public generally rather approved of their action. Shortly afterwards, two or three young men were arrested on suspicion of being concerned in the matter, and did in fact appear to be the sons of substantial farmers. The coroner's jury brought in a verdict against them, couched, however, in mild terms, and fresh indications of popular sympathy appeared in their favor.

The county papers stated at the time that the house thus assailed was occupied by a family of noted robbers, who had for years managed to evade the law, and that this attack was made by persons injured by their depredations and rendered desperate by their inability to obtain satisfaction through legal measures.

Several months have elapsed since these events took place, and we had almost forgotten them, when the report of the Prison Association of this city, lately published, recalled them to mind, and gave an account of the motives for this unlawful resort to violence which opens a view of society in the interior of this State that can only be compared to the terrible disorganization of Southern Italy.

According to this statement, the truth of which we see no reason to doubt, the family who were attacked as above-mentioned are noted thieves, who have grown rich by carrying on their business with the aid of an organization spreading over eight or more counties in Central New York. In all these counties they have confederates who interchange plunder with them, and run off stolen property in such manner as to avoid detection. Often indicted, they have never been convicted, and never lie in prison for want of bail. "Respectable" farmers always come forward as their sureties, and are reasonably suspected of being partners in their gains. Magistrates and prosecuting officers are also believed to be in league with these plunderers, who are never reached by the law, but who find no difficulty in using the law as a means of revenge upon those who injure them. Thus, they have caused the detention of a man and his wife in jail upon a charge of larceny, universally disbelieved, for a period of eighteen months, in consequence of the woman having given information against the gang of thieves thus bound together. Many similar cases, it is said, might be mentioned.

Of course a band of robbers thus powerful and malignant do not hesitate to resort to measures of more positive violence than these. Whoever makes himself active in seeking justice against them, speedily finds his barn, or even his dwelling, burned in the night, his horses stolen, or his cattle stabbed in the fields.

A circumstance of this kind, last summer, brought matters to a climax. A constable of Madison County, who had made himself very offensive to rogues, was arrested by two of these thieves, under a warrant from a justice of the peace in their interest, and they were taking him to their own house, instead of to jail, when some citizens of the town of Hamilton compelled them to change their course and carry him directly to the lawful jail. In less than a month, the barns of five of these interfering citizens were burned, and two of their best horses stolen. This outrage determined the people upon taking the law into their own hands, and the result was the midnight assault to which we have referred.

This picture of law defied and, which is far worse, perverted to the service of villainy, of plunder organized and triumphant, and of men externally respectable in league with gangs of robbers, is one which may well excite a feeling of shame in every citizen of the State. We fear that it is not in any way exaggerated. We have heard, from residents of Central and Northern New York, charges of complicity with crime against even higher officials than are implicated by this statement. Such rumors are too often founded upon some basis of fact, and though in the particular cases which become public there is frequently more in the rumor than the facts would justify, yet on the other hand it must be remembered that for one instance of official corruption which is made public, there are at least ten which remain secret.

A single fact, which is stated in the same report of the Prison Association from which we have already quoted, seems to indicate the wide prevalence of corruption or inefficiency. It appears that the bail bonds of criminals, though often forfeited, are never enforced. It is not easy to believe that the sureties get off thus easily without making some compromise with the officers who control these bonds; while it is certain that the State derives no benefit from these compromises.

It is hard to say anything as to the means by which these evils may be remedied. The administration of justice in this State, and no doubt in others also, has for many years been tainted with corruption; not certainly as the rule, but in cases of disgraceful frequency. In certain criminal courts, not necessary to be specified, corruption has been

the rule, and honesty the exception, for twenty-five years. This state of things was not created by the elective system, for it existed before the judges were elected by the people; but it has certainly grown worse with the advance of time, and has probably been aggravated by the new system. One thing, at least, is certain, that the present division of the State into small districts for the election of judicial officers has been carried too far. To confer, as is now done, the choice of a police justice upon a district in which the majority of the houses are occupied by liquor dealers of the worst kind, brothel-keepers, thieves, and beggars, is as degrading a farce as to give a State prison the election of its warden. And that which we know to be the case in cities we presume to be sometimes the case in the country. There must be towns here and there in which the prevailing influences are of a criminal or at least immoral nature; and such towns ought not to have the power of electing their own judicial officers. We appreciate the difficulties which surround these questions. Government must in the main be administered upon general rules; and, as a general rule, it has been deemed best to entrust the town separately with the election of all town officers. A case of oppression or corruption is more likely to be known through the town than in all the county; and an offender might be, and in fact has often been, re-elected by a large district, when his own neighbors have repudiated him. But we can imagine a plan which should obviate some of these difficulties, though we shall not now enter upon it. The first duty of those who desire to reform the judicial system of the State is to awaken the public to a sense of its present defects, and of the appalling dangers which threaten us from a continuance of its downward tendency.

#### MR. SEWARD ON THE NEED OF THE NATION.

WE are *particeps criminis* with Mr. Hunter, chief clerk of the State Department, in a fraud to the extent of two cents on the Government of the United States. We have received from that gentleman, under his frank, generally supposed to cover official business, and to be lawfully used for that purpose alone, a neatly-executed pamphlet containing Mr. Seward's last Auburn speech, and though the print has a suspicious look of the Government printing-house, we shall keep it, even at the expense of encouraging the pious error that our income tax is levied to publish and distribute Mr. Seward's personal out-givings. We shall do so, for the purpose of calling attention to these few sentences which occur on page nine, and contain the substance of the whole speech:

"What, then, does the nation need? It needs just what I have dwelt upon so much and so earnestly in these remarks; it needs reconciliation, and just now needs nothing more. It needs, moreover, only a very little of this. It needs a reconciliation between the senators of the United States who are now acting and those senators who, being loyal and qualified for membership of the Senate, have been already, or may hereafter be, elected by the people of the several States which were lately involved in the rebellion. It needs a reconciliation of the same kind between the members of the House of Representatives who are now acting and loyal members already elected, or to be elected, by the people in the same before-mentioned States. It needs just this Congressional reconciliation, and nothing more."

It seems to us that this is a very grave mistake. Doubtless the nation needs reconciliation. But of what? Of the passions war usually engenders? They can hardly be said to exist in the North; and the people of the North, who, whether we regard their numbers, strength, fidelity to the national institutions, or hope and faith in a national future, really are the nation, need no reconciliation with the people of the South, because, practically, they harbor no hatred toward them. Nor is it fair to say that there is need that our actual members of Congress need a reconciliation with those who claim to be members of Congress, and are not, from the Southern States. Such men as Senators Fessenden, Trumbull, and Sherman have no bad feeling, and represent none, towards such men as Marvin, of Florida, or his constituents. Messrs. Boutwell, Conkling, Washburne, Wilson, of the House, have no quarrel, and want none, with Maynard or with Stokes—whom a Democratic paper, with characteristic courtesy, calls the "ribboned ox of the Radicals"—nor can there be any quarrel between the people of the North and those who sent Messrs. Maynard and Stokes to Washington.

What the country needs is something which Mr. Seward very gayly,

but entirely, ignores—the reconciliation of the conflict between “two radically different political systems,” which he declared in 1858 to be impossible, and which has proved itself so by bringing about the late war, and by defying the unstinted pardons of the President and the most powerful sedatives of the Secretary of State. That these conflicting systems, in their distinctive principles, still exist, is plain from what Mr. Seward himself said about their results. Where one prevails, an aristocratic ruling class is the sure accompaniment; where the other prevails, “universal suffrage obtains, and the State inevitably becomes, sooner or later, a republic or a democracy.” In the Southern States “lately involved in the rebellion” the system recognized by Mr. Johnson and his Secretary includes and, indeed, is controlled by an aristocratic ruling class, principally distinguished for their violence during the rebellion, and their defiant opposition to the principles of republican government since. The system, on the other hand, which the large body of intelligent and conscientious Republicans in the North wish to prevail, involves universal, or, what is a better phase of the same principle, impartial suffrage, and seeks the establishment of a true republic.

It is the conflict between these two that must have reconciliation; and though we believe a man has a right in a republican government to change his mind for the better, Mr. Seward was so much sounder in 1858 than he is in 1866, that we use words of his spoken then to show the incalculable and inherent superiority of the system of freedom over the system which, in all its forms, is essentially the system of slavery. Contrasting the two, he said of the former: “It opens all the fields of industrial employment and all the departments of authority to the unchecked and equal rivalry of all classes of men, and at once secures universal contentment, and brings into the highest possible activity all the physical, moral, and social energies of the whole State.” Does Mr. Seward now hope for any better kind of peace than is thus promised? He pleaded, then, that that principle “conforms to the divine law of equality which is written in the hearts and consciences of men, and therefore is always and everywhere beneficent.” Is there any other principle from which Mr. Seward can now prophesy any nobler or surer result?

No. Mr. Seward is, it seems to us, seriously and dangerously mistaken, and if the thoughtful men of the Republican party are inclined to follow him—which we do not fear—let them take warning from a lesson read to them from history by Mr. Seward himself:

“The Democratic party derived its strength, originally, from its adoption of the principle of equal and exact justice to all men. So long as it practised this principle faithfully it was invulnerable. It became vulnerable when it renounced the principle, and since that time has maintained itself not by virtue of its own strength or even of its traditional merits, but because there as yet had appeared in the political field no other party that had the conscience to take up and avow and practise the life-inspiring principle which the Democratic party had surrendered.”

#### AIR AND ARCHITECTURE.

As one man’s calamity is often another man’s opportunity, we would make bold to suggest to our Palladios and Vanbrughes that the calamity which has just deprived us of our opera-house furnishes them with an admirable opportunity to provide us with another such as the world has never yet seen. We do not mean that they should make it an astonishment to the nations with their façades, and their pillars, and their pilasters, and their thin slices of marble or of brown stone spread over meagre scantlings of brick-work, like boarding-school bread and butter, for we shall have all that, of course. And so of the graven images, the caryatides, the cupids, the carved work, and the frescoes, for we cannot hope to escape them in new combinations of horrors. What we would humbly suggest to their better judgment is, that they should take into their grave consideration the existence of the two elements of fire and air, and exercise their genius in the invention of methods for keeping the first out of their new construction and for letting the second in. Now we apprehend that it is perfectly within the possibilities of science and art to make a theatre that shall be absolutely fire-proof, and we think, moreover, that there could not be a better advertisement, not even in the *New York Herald*, for the one that shall first

be made such, than the statement of the fact. Very few persons are absolutely free from the shuddering suggestion of the unescapable horrors of a conflagration, should one take place, when they find themselves in a crowded theatre. It may be a mere prejudice of education that makes one object to going up in a flame of fire, when one’s time has come, but it prevails extensively and should be respected. We are well aware of the recklessness of the American race to all manner of avoidable as well as inevitable dangers. But, still, we think that a fair average even of them would prefer, the entertainment being equally good, to amuse themselves at a theatre where they should be absolutely safe from the inconvenience of being burned alive. We presume that the tenth part of what it will cost to rebuild the Academy, expended originally in making a fire impossible, would have been no bad economy for the owners. The saving in insurance alone would have paid the difference in the cost ten times over.

But, while we would have our artist in brick and mortar contrive to make the coming opera-house fire-proof, we would as earnestly entreat him to avoid making it air-proof, as the common custom is. The ancients classed air among what they queerly enough styled the *non-naturals*—such as food, rest, exercise, and some other functions which shall be nameless. One would think that this element was still regarded by our builders, and those they build for, as still belonging to the category of *non-naturals*, in the literal and vulgar signification of the compound term. But we beg leave to differ from this prevalent opinion, even at the risk of being thought radical and fanatical. We assert, with all due humility, that air is not only necessary to our animal existence, but that it cannot properly perform its wholesome offices unless it be pure. The Creator has done his part well as to this matter. The vast sea of air, at the bottom of which we creep about as fishes which Agassiz has never imagined do on the bed of the ocean stream, is constantly renewing and purifying itself by the imperative laws of its being. It is only when we can lay hold of a portion of it and confine it within walls, as nearly hermetically sealed as may be, and do our best to prevent its escape or its refreshment from without, that it becomes stagnant and putrid, and a poison instead of a healthsome draught, sparkling with invigorating life. And it is only because nature is too strong for us and refuses to permit us to defy her as utterly as we fain would do, that we are even as well off as we are. She will insist upon forcing air into our houses, public and private, and not allowing us to turn them into exhausted receivers and Black Holes of Calcutta as thoroughly as we would. Still, we are competent to disappoint her of much of her kind intentions, and to turn what she gave us as the means of health and joy into the occasion of sickness and pain and death. Many of the diseases which make life burdensome while it lasts, and bring it to an untimely ending, and especially those of the lungs, we create ourselves by our folly in transforming the *pabulum* of life into its bane.

For we would by no means affirm or insinuate that the builders of theatres are sinners above all other abusers of building-materials. Lecture-rooms, concert-rooms, school-rooms, and churches are, too many, if not all of them, in the same condemnation. Who has not felt “an exposition of sleep,” like that Bottom experienced, and which sometimes leads to an exposition of himself, stealing over him at the very gayest moment of the comedy or at the blackest horror of the tragedy or melodrama? We ourself went last winter, one night, to see Booth in “Richelieu,” and we cannot affirm to this hour, from our own knowledge, whether he was “the state” or not. And so of the lecture-room and the concert-hall. Indeed, not a few persons of delicate organizations avoid all public places because the murdered air they helped to kill in them haunts them the next morning in the ghostly shape of a nervous headache. For every pair of lungs is as much an apparatus for making carbonic acid gas as a chafing-dish of charcoal, and disoxygenses (if there be such a word) more than a hogshead full of air every hour. Even the sanctity of the church is not sufficient, now the days of miracles are over, to suspend the laws of nature or to avoid the penalty for breaking them. We have been told on good authority that instances have been known of wicked men sleeping soundly under the loudest thunders of the pulpit, and that through the longest and soundest sermon! But since our churches seem to be built generally on the principle that the air, as a part of the domain of the Prince

of the Powers thereof, is to be defied and kept out of them as a religious duty, some indulgence, if not full absolution, may be allowed to these sleepy sinners. The school-houses, again, as almost universally built, seem to be contrived for the purpose of ascertaining by actual experiment with how little air small animals can do without positive asphyxiation. And private houses differ from those intended for public uses, pious or otherwise, chiefly in the smaller number of pairs of lungs that have to deal with the modicum of air which is thought sufficient for the consumption of a family.

In brief, the perversity of men has shown itself in few things more than in the pains they take to cabin, crib, and confine the freest, and to debauch and pollute the purest, of all God's gifts to man. Now, certainly, this need not be so. There must be ways by which the atmosphere of the most thronged churches, theatres, or lecture-rooms shall be as pure and sweet as the circumambient air itself. And as soon as the consumers demand that those ways shall be found out, the discovery will be sure to be made. It is the office of art, informed and inspired by science, to seek out more and more excellent ways of applying the bounties of nature to the uses of man. This is material civilization, and we are barbarians, with all our ornamentations, as long as the laws of God are not fully understood and practically applied to the business of daily life. A wide and beneficent field lies yet scarcely touched for the genius and skill of the architect to work in. He who will contrive to combine perfect purity of air with warmth and light, in crowded churches, theatres, and school-rooms, as well as in private houses, will be a benefactor to his race, and will deserve, at least, to be as famous as he who hung Peter's dome in air.

#### THE METRICAL SYSTEM OF WEIGHTS AND MEASURES.

THE French metrical system is based upon a fundamental unit, or measure, of *length*, called by the well-chosen name *metre*. This standard measure was sought in the sublimest of all sciences, astronomy. It is the 40-millionth part of the circumference of the earth, or, in other words, of a "great circle" or meridian. Its length was originally determined by actual measurement of a considerable arc of a meridian; from the measured length of this arc was obtained by multiplication the length of the whole meridian, and the metre was defined and constructed the 40-millionth part of this meridian. It was a worthy thought thus to base the familiar standard of length for common human uses upon the grand and unchanging bulk of our planet, but we do not thus arrive at a standard which can know no change, and which could be exactly replaced if all the actual metres in the world should be simultaneously destroyed. Though the laws of astronomy and the circuit of the earth know no variableness, man's knowledge of those laws and his skill in measuring that circuit do constantly change. Hence we find that the various measurements heretofore made of the length of the earth's meridian differ slightly from each other, and it is to be expected, and indeed hoped, that the steady improvement of methods and instruments will make each successive determination of the length of the meridian better than the preceding, through all time. Whether, therefore, we use the yard or the metre, whether we theoretically base our standard upon the earth's circumference or the second-pendulum, we are practically obliged to define our standard of length, by legislation, to be a certain rod of metal, deposited in a certain room under specified guarantees and guardianship. The uniformity and permanence of the standard are to be secured by the multiplication of exact copies in safe places of deposit.

From this single quantity, the metre, all other measures are decimalized. Multiplied or divided by 10, by 100, by 1,000, and so forth, the metre supplies all needed linear measures, from the finest which the microscope requires to the vastest which the telescope demands. As the linear metre, decimalized multiplied and divided, furnishes the universal linear scale, so the square metre and the cubic metre, with their decimal multiples, supply all needed measures of *area* or *surface*, on the one hand, and of *solidity* or *capacity*, on the other. It is the universality and comprehensiveness of this system and its decimal character which establish its claim to general acceptance. The insect's wing, a nation's territory, a grain of sand, a continent's bulk, are all measured by reference to the same unit, and the numbers which express their dimensions conform at once, without reduction or alteration, to our decimal arithmetical notation. The American people need no elaborate demonstration of the convenience of a decimal system; a decimal currency, by them first established, has convinced them on this point.

From the unit of measure to the unit of weight, the transition is admir-

ably simple and convenient. The cube of the 1/100 of the linear metre is, of course, the millionth of the cubic metre. Its bulk is comparable to that of a large *die* of the common backgammon board. This little cube, the millionth of the cubic metre, of pure water is the universal unit of weight, a *gramme*, which, decimalized multiplied and divided, is made to express all weights, from that of the dust upon the balance to that of mountains and suns. The chemist uses the gramme itself as his unit, and his delicate balances readily weigh the ten-thousandth of a gramme; the thousand gramme weight is the unit of the grocer, and his coarser scales hardly turn with the gramme itself, while for heavy merchandise, like coal or hay, the million-gramme weight (the English ton) is the suitable unit. The numbers expressing all weights, from the least to the greatest, find direct expression in the decimal notation; the weights used in different trades only differ from each other in being different decimal multiples of the same fundamental unit; and in comparing together weights and volumes, none but easy decimal computations are ever necessary.

From this general sketch of the metrical system we pass to its details and its nomenclature, which may be best studied under the three heads of linear, surface, and cubic measure. One general principle of nomenclature applies to each of the following tables. The Greek prefixes for 10, 100, and 1,000, viz., *deca*, *hecto*, and *kilo*, are used to signify multiplication, while the Latin prefixes for 10, 100, and 1,000, viz., *deci*, *centi*, and *milli*, are employed to express subdivision. Of the names thus systematically derived from that of the unit in each table many are not often used; the names in common use are those printed in small capitals. Thus, in the table for linear measure, only the metre, kilometre, centimetre, and millimetre are in common use—the first for such purposes as the English yard subserves, the second instead of the English mile, the third and fourth in lieu of the fractions of the English foot and inch.

#### LINÉAR MEASURE.

		Metre.
Divisions	MILLIMETRE, CENTIMETRE, Decimetre,	0.001 or 1/1,000 of a metre.
Unit	METRE,	0.01 or 1/100 "
Multiples	Decametre, Hectometre, KILOMETRE	0.1 or 1/10 "
		1.
		10.
		100.
		1,000.

#### SURFACE MEASURE.

		Metre.
Divisions	Millimetre square, Centimetre square, Decimetre square,	0.000,001 of a metre square.
Unit	METRE square,	0.000,1 "
Multiples		0.01 "
		1.

This table for surface measure applies to the measurement of cloth, lumber, and the like, and to the measurement of land where it is very valuable, as in cities; but for measuring land upon a large scale the metre square is too small a unit to start from, so that a square of ten metres on the side, equal to one hundred square metres, has been selected as the surface unit for measuring land, and the Greek and Latin prefixes are applied to the name of this unit square, which is called an *area*, or *are*. Of the seven names thus formed only two are much used, viz., the are and the hectare.

#### SURFACE (LAND) MEASURE.

		Arc.	Square Metres.
Divisions	Milliare	0.001	0.1
	Centiare	0.01	1.
	Deciare	0.1	10.
Unit	ARE	1.	100.
	Decare	10.	1,000.
Multiples	HECTARE	100.	10,000.
	Kilare	1,000.	100,000.

#### CUBIC MEASURE.

		Cubic Metre.
Divisions	Cubic Millimetre	0.000,000,001
	Cubic Centimetre	0.000,001
	Cubic Decimetre	0.001
Unit	CUBIC METRE	1.
	Cubic Decametre	1,000.
Multiples	Cubic Hectometre	1,000,000.
	Cubic Kilometre	1,000,000,000.

The cubic metre is in common use as a measure for stone, sand, gravel, wood for fuel, and like materials which are sold by measure. When applied to the measurement of wood for fuel the cubic metre is sometimes called a *stere*, and to this name the Greek and Latin prefixes may be, but seldom are, applied.

For the measurement of wine, beer, oil, grain, and similar wet and dry substances, a smaller unit than the cubic metre is desirable. As a special unit was made from the square of the decametre for land measurement, so the cubic decimetre is selected as a special standard of capacity for the measurement of those substances which are bought and sold by the English wet and dry measures. The cubic decimetre thus used is called a *litre*.

## CAPACITY MEASURE.

	Litres.	Cubic Metres.	
Divisions...			= cubic centimetre.
{ Millilitre	0.001	0.000,001	
{ Centilitre	0.01	0.000,1	
{ Decilitre	0.1	0.001	
Unit.....	Litre	1.	= cubic decimetre.
{ Decalitre	10.	0.01	
Multiples...	Hectolitre	100.	0.1
	Kilolitre	1,000.	1.
			= cubic metre.

Of the measures contained in this table only two, the litre and the hectolitre, are in very common use, though they are all more or less employed.

The table of weights bears an intimate relation to this table of capacity. As already mentioned, the weight of that die-sized cube, a cubic centimetre or millilitre of distilled water (taken at 4° C., its point of greatest density), constitutes the metrical unit of weight. This weight is called a *gramme*. From the very definition of the gramme and from the table of capacity measure it is clear that a litre of distilled water at 4° C. will weigh 1,000 grammes.

## WEIGHTS.

	Grammes.	
Divisions...	0.001	
{ MILLIGRAMME		
{ CENTIGRAMME	0.01	
{ DECIGRAMME	0.1	
Unit.....	GRAMME	1.1 = cubic centimetre of water at 4°.
{ DECAGRAMME	10.	
Multiples...	Hectogramme	100.
	KILOGRAMME	1,000. = 1 cubic decimetre of water at 4°.

The beautiful simplicity and directness of the relations between weights and volumes in the metrical system can now be more fully explained. The chemist or apothecary, for example, uses the gramme as his unit weight, and for his unit of volume, or measure, a cubic centimetre, which is the bulk of a gramme of water. The grocer, for his coarser work, uses the kilogramme as his unit of weight, and for unit of measure, the bulk of a kilogramme of water, the litre. A boat displaces a certain number of cubic metres of fresh water; it weighs then the same number of 1,000 kilogrammes, since a litre of water weighs a kilogramme, and a thousand litres make a cubic metre. In all commercial dealings, in all manufacturing processes and scientific investigations, these simple relations between weights and measures are an unspeakable advantage.

The number and length of the names included in the above tables may perhaps deter some minds from the really easy task of mastering this simple and consistent system. One obvious suggestion will, however, remove this seeming difficulty. Since the numerical expressions for metrical weights and measures are invariably decimal, they may always be read as decimals. Thus, 5.126 metres will be read, five metres and one hundred and twenty-six thousands, and not, five metres, one decimetre, two centimetres, and six millimetres. So, 5.26 hectares may be read, five hectares and twenty-six hundredths, or five hundred and twenty-six ares, but not, five hectares, two decates, and six ares. Or again, the expression 10.5 grammes is read, ten and five-tenths grammes; 16.56 kilogrammes, sixteen and fifty-six hundredths kilogrammes. This point will be readily comprehended by comparison with our manner of reading figures in our decimal currency. We read \$105.00 one hundred and five dollars, not ten eagles and five dollars; we say sixty-five cents, not six dimes and five cents. It should be remembered, in this connection, that the metrical system of weights, measures, and coinage does away with the so-called compound addition, subtraction, multiplication, division, and reduction, and with all fractions not decimal. All computations, under this system, are made with decimals alone.

The following abbreviations are very commonly and advantageously used in writing and printing:

m. m.	for millimetre;	m. m.	for square m. m.;	m. m.	for cubic m. m.
c. m.	" centimetre;	c. m.	"	c. m.	c. m.
k. m.	" kilometre.				
m.	" metre;	m.	"	m.	"
L.	" litre;	Hectolitre.			
Grm.	" gramme;	Kilo.	or K.	for kilogramme.	

It remains to bring the weights and measures of this philosophical system into comparison with those of the irrational and complicated English scheme, which we have so unfortunately inherited:

1 metre	= 3.2809 feet	= 39.3708 inches.
1 are	= 3.9574 perches	= 119.6033 square yards
		= 0.0247 acres.
1 hectare	= 395.7388 perches	= 2.471 acres.
1 cubic metre	= 35.3166 cubic feet	= 1.9080 cubic yard.
1 litre	= 1.008 imp. pint	= 0.2201 imp. gallon
		= 61.0271 cubic inches.
1 gramme	= 15.4340 grains Avoirdupois	= 15.4424 grains Troy.
1 kilogramme	= 2.204 pounds Avoirdupois	= 2.6795 pounds Troy.
1000. kilos	= 2204. pounds Avoirdupois.	

In making these comparisons it must be borne in mind that we now have two different weights called a pound, two different tons, and two different

measures called a gallon. The two pounds are to each other nearly in the ratio of 35 to 29, and the two gallons are related to each other as 277.274 to 231.

When we extend our view beyond the territory of any single nation, and take into consideration international exchanges and the statistics of different countries, the obstacles to commerce and to the diffusion of knowledge which are due to the want of one universally accepted system of weights and measures throughout the civilized world become more and more apparent. If only the great nations had different standards, the evil would be serious, but less intolerable than it actually is, for it often happens that the different provinces of a single nation, and not seldom its petty cities and towns, employ special weights and measures whose acceptance is very narrowly local. It would be hard to exaggerate the difficulties thus thrown in the way of statisticians, and of all other students who desire to compare the experience of different nations, or the scientific researches of philosophers writing in different languages. In the sciences of chemistry and physics this evil became so intolerable that the metrical system has already come into general use among all the scientific communities of Europe and America.

The recent action of Congress is good as far as it goes; but the national Government has it in its power, as never before, to bring about this purely beneficent revolution with promptness and thoroughness. If the metrical system were at once exclusively employed in all the dealings of the Government, in all the business of the customs, the internal revenue, the post-office, the patent-office, the army and navy bureaus, and the administration of the public lands and public improvements, the people of the United States, than whom none are more prompt to seize a new thing, so it be good, will be in full possession of this inestimable improvement within five years. In the meantime it is to be hoped that the commission, which the President is authorized to appoint for negotiating with foreign governments, may be so constituted as to represent effectively the best statesmanship, business capacity, and science of the country, that they may carry weight in the council of nations. The commission is charged with the subject of coinage as well as that of weights and measures, and upon that subject American experience is of special value. Our borrowed system of weights and measures would doubtless give place to the metrical system; but for a standard of value there is no unit so deserving of general adoption, or so likely to be adopted, as the Spanish, Mexican, and American dollar.

## CURIOSITIES OF CRIME.

LAST summer a curious psychological study was afforded by the confession of a Swedish pastor named Lindback, who had been guilty of poisoning three invalid paupers in his parish. So far from exhibiting any remorse for these crimes when they were detected and he imprisoned, he calmly, if not confidently, explained the process by which his mind was brought to the commission of them. A purely philanthropic spirit, fortified by the contemplation of suffering and misery, had induced him to relieve the wretched objects of his ministrations by hastening their death. He had observed, he said, that very few die of years, but the great majority from some external cause which God either provides or at least does not hinder. Many, in the flower of their age, destroy themselves involuntarily through a misuse of their intelligence. Many perish under the treatment of the most skilful physicians—some being thrust back from a near recovery. Science, as well as ignorance, plays a leading part in the causes productive of death. A merciful God, he thought, who was aware of all this, would not judge him harshly for abridging the pains of his fellow-creatures.

Pastor Lindback went the way of other convicted murderers, not, probably, with the execration which attends the common sort, possibly even with pity. His reasoning was plausible, if utterly unsound; and as intelligible, supposing it genuine, as his offence was unpardonable in a court of justice. We are reminded of it by a case which has occurred in this country within sixty days, developing a state of mind sufficiently analogous to his. Mrs. Sarah Haviland is on trial at Marshall, Michigan, for the murder of her three children. She is accused jointly with a man who appears to be regarded as her paramour, and the person for whose sake or at whose instigation she poisoned her little ones. The incomplete report before us does not allow us to confirm this suspicion, which, on the other hand, is expressly denied by the mother in the latter particular, and by implication in the first. Her voluntary confession is in substance as follows: She was the wife of a drunken husband, with whom the family "could have no peace," and who frequently drove her out of doors after dark, because, to use her own words, "I believed in spiritualism." A year ago she deserted him and went to live in Battle Creek, hoping there to purchase with her own property a home for

herself and children, and to obtain for the latter the benefits of the local Lyceum. Disappointed in both respects, she would have experienced great suffering but for the assistance of her present fellow-prisoner. Her efforts to earn her support by peddling books in the streets were unsuccessful and disheartening, and increased her maternal solicitude for the future.

"I had hard work," she says, "to keep my children where they should be, the little boys especially. I had always tried to bring them up honestly, but as they grew older I saw the disposition of their father manifested in them, and I was all the time uneasy if they were out of my sight, for fear they would get to stealing or their father would get the little ones. When I looked forward to the time when my children should be grown up men and women, I feared for them that they would have to suffer by transgressing the laws of the land; and I thought as I had been the author of their existence, in a measure, it was better to send them to the spirit world while they were innocent, and if any one would have to suffer, I would do it instead of them. . . . The two little ones, John and Libbie, their father being a thief and a drunkard, I feared if he took the children from me they would walk in his steps; and, as I looked to the future, I saw a worse fate for my daughter Libbie if he had her."

The significant phrase "in a measure" is enlarged further on:

"My children, the three now dead, I was forced to have against my consent; but I did try to bring them up as well as I knew how, nor did I ever misuse them in any other way."

After describing the means she employed to poison them, she says: "I took care of my children and watched over them until the last breath." For the rest: "I feel that what I have done is to be settled between me and my God and the spirit world."

The example of Pastor Lindback forbids us to ascribe Mrs. Haviland's shocking and unnatural behavior to her peculiar religious ideas. His, which were probably the very opposite, did not deter him from deliberate murder, and he had to face not only his Maker and the spirits of those whose departure he had hastened, but, in case of condemnation, the terrors of a place of everlasting punishment. As for "spiritualism," the last charge that can be laid at its door is that it weakens the ties of kindred. It may have disturbed many households, like other theologies about which man and wife have opportunity to differ and quarrel, but the power of its propagandism lies in the proofs it seems to offer of a conscious existence hereafter and of a reunion beyond the grave. The fallacy by which each criminal was deluded differed in nothing except, as we may say, in degree, and was based upon a common recognition of human accountability. The pastor felt himself responsible for the actual misery which he might abridge; Mrs. Haviland, for the prospective misfortunes of her children which she might likewise avert. The one, perhaps, was led by his office, as the other was by her relationship, to a deed which, it was expected, God would view at least with leniency, possibly with approbation. Both reckoned up the chances of their victims and struck the balance against them, launching them at once upon a life of whose conditions they knew nothing, and upon which those who have most studiously prepared themselves are not seldom the least bold to enter.

For the mother of unwelcome offspring, Mrs. Haviland, to accept her own statements, must be allowed to have shown no lack of affection. Had she been a coward, or harbored malice towards her husband, she might have abandoned her children to their fate either before or after her flight from home. Yet it does not appear that her apprehension for their welfare was exaggerated by an excess of fondness. There were good reasons for believing that they had the disposition of their father, and she doubtless felt that her control of them was proportionate to her ability to feed and rear them, which was very slim indeed. And the moment she was seized with the notion that she would be morally responsible for their perdition and the harm they were destined to inflict upon others, she was irrecoverably lost. To her confused perception there was no self-evident absurdity in protecting society from contingent lawlessness by committing the most grievous possible offence against it.

One other case of infanticide, not to be mentioned by an American without a blush, is indelibly fastened upon the annals of slavery. Margaret Garner, at Cincinnati, killed her child that it might not grow up a slave. Men who were wont to honor the memory of Virginians, hesitated to refuse to that poor black the title of heroine. She, too, reckoned the chances and decided adversely to life—as it seemed then, with much better reason than Pastor Lindback or Mrs. Haviland. There was no sentiment about her. If she thought of the hereafter, it was only to resolve that any hell would be a refuge from that out of which she had escaped, and to which she was about to be dragged back. Far be it from us to doubt that she has found equal mercy with that hoped for by those whose names we have coupled with hers. She erred just as fatally, however, albeit more ignorantly, and rather from strength of passion than feebleness of intellect. If it is demoralizing to

avoid our proper responsibility, it is also dangerous to surpass it. They are to be commiserated, even while censured, who have chosen the wrong issue from so grave a perplexity.

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FINANCIAL REVIEW.

NATION OFFICE, Thursday,  
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We are beginning to receive from Europe the reply to our first gold shipments, and already a better feeling is reported to prevail on the London Stock Exchange. Our securities were in better demand, and bankers felt grateful at the unexpected aid they were receiving from this country. The news has reacted upon our markets. Gold, which had risen to 146½ on Tuesday, fell back to 144 on Wednesday; to-day at 3 P.M. it stands at 142½. Exchange is firmer; sixty-day sterling bills have been selling at 110, and eight bills at 111. Specie continues to go forward freely. Yesterday, from Boston and from this port, \$3,765,000 were shipped, and on Saturday some four millions more will probably go. Not a dollar of the gold sold by the Government will be kept in the country. Letters have been published by Secretary McCulloch and Assistant-Treasurer Vandyke with the design of justifying the sale of fifteen millions of public gold at 130, after the news of the Euro-

pean panic had been received. They are well written; but they have failed to convince the public that it was for the interests of the Government or of the mercantile community to sell the specie reserve at a price below that which it would naturally have commanded had the Government officials left the market to itself. The experience of the past four years tells very strongly against official interference with the natural workings of trade, and it would not be surprising if, before the adjournment, Congress should adopt some measures with a view to check future intermeddling with the gold market by the Treasury officials.

Money is again very easy at 6 per cent. The Sub-Treasury has been disbursing quite heavily—the balance now \$87,000,000—and the banks cannot find employment for the surplus currency thus thrust upon them. People have got over the idea that there is to be any contraction; it is about time.

The stock market continues active and variable. The last novelty has been a simultaneous corner in Erie and New York Central, both of which were on Tuesday and yesterday locked up by cliques and made quite scarce for delivery. As much as  $\frac{1}{2}$  per cent. was paid on each of these days for the use of the stock. The New York Central clique must have invested many millions of money in their operation. How they calculate to make it pay, is a problem. An attempt to sell would cause the price to fall 10 per cent. in a day or two. Erie continues to be the subject of angry discussion in the newspapers. The bulls are furious with the company for having borrowed money of Mr. Drew, and with Mr. Drew for having lent the money. In fact, the former had no choice but to borrow the money somewhere, and as to Mr. Drew, we judge he is the only man in or out of the United States who would lend 60 on Erie. A new movement has been inaugurated in the Northwest stocks, on the basis of increased earnings. The directors meet next week, and will probably pass the dividend on the preferred stock. Fort Wayne and Rock Island are rather lower and neglected. The clique in Reading appear to be selling their stock. Governments are well supported in the face of receipts of bonds from Europe.

The following table will show the course of the stock, gold, exchange, and money markets since our last issue:

	May 31.	June 4.	June 7.	Advance.	Decline.
United States Sixes of 1881.....	109 $\frac{1}{4}$	105 $\frac{1}{4}$	105 $\frac{1}{4}$		
5-20 Bonds, old.....	102	102	102 $\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{1}{4}$	.....
5-20 Bonds of 1865.....	102 $\frac{1}{4}$	102	102 $\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{1}{4}$	.....
10-40 Bonds.....	95 $\frac{1}{4}$	96	96	.....	.....
7-30 Notes, second series.....	102 $\frac{1}{4}$	102 $\frac{1}{4}$	102 $\frac{1}{4}$	.....	$\frac{1}{4}$
New York Central.....	98	98 $\frac{1}{4}$	98	.....	$\frac{1}{4}$
Erie Railway.....	60 $\frac{1}{4}$	62 $\frac{1}{4}$	62 $\frac{1}{4}$	.....	.....
Hudson River.....	113	110 $\frac{1}{4}$	110	.....	$\frac{1}{4}$
Reading Railroad.....	109 $\frac{1}{4}$	108 $\frac{1}{4}$	109	$\frac{1}{4}$	.....
Michigan Southern.....	81	80 $\frac{1}{4}$	79	.....	1 $\frac{1}{4}$
Cleveland and Pittsburgh.....	84	85	83 $\frac{1}{4}$	.....	1 $\frac{1}{4}$
Chicago and North-western.....	28 $\frac{1}{4}$	28 $\frac{1}{4}$	30 $\frac{1}{4}$	2	.....
" " " Preferred.....	58	58 $\frac{1}{4}$	61	2 $\frac{1}{4}$	.....
Chicago and Rock Island.....	94	93	92 $\frac{1}{4}$	.....	$\frac{1}{4}$
P., Fort Wayne, and Chicago.....	97 $\frac{1}{4}$	96 $\frac{1}{4}$	97 $\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{1}{4}$	.....
Canton.....	59 $\frac{1}{4}$	60	60	.....	.....
Cumberland.....	45	45 $\frac{1}{4}$	46	$\frac{1}{4}$	.....
Mariposa.....	12	12 $\frac{1}{4}$	12	.....	$\frac{1}{4}$
American Gold.....	139 $\frac{1}{4}$	143 $\frac{1}{4}$	142 $\frac{1}{4}$	.....	$\frac{1}{4}$
Bankers' Bills on London.....	109 $\frac{1}{4}$	109 $\frac{1}{4}$	109 $\frac{1}{4}$	.....	$\frac{1}{4}$
Call Loans.....	6	6	6	.....	.....

**HOME  
INSURANCE COMPANY  
OF NEW YORK,  
OFFICE, 135 BROADWAY.**

**Cash Capital, - - - - - \$2,000,000 00  
Assets, 1st Jan., 1866, - - - - - 3,598,674 14  
Liabilities, - - - - - 153,746 24**

**FIRE, MARINE, and INLAND  
INSURANCE.**

Agencies at all important points throughout the United States.

CHAS. J. MARTIN, PRESIDENT.

A. F. WILMARTH, VICE-PRESIDENT.

JOHN McGEE, Secretary.

J. H. WASHBURN, Assistant Secretary.

**Insurance Scrip.**

**WILLIAM C. GILMAN,**

46 PINE STREET, NEW YORK,

BUYS AND SELLS INSURANCE SCRIP.

**NEW AND IMPORTANT PLANS OF LIFE INSURANCE.**

**WHERE TO INSURE.**

**UNION MUTUAL LIFE INSURANCE COMPANY.**

NEW YORK OFFICE, 151 BROADWAY.

ASSETS, over	\$1,500,000
RECEIPTS for the year, over	700,000
DIVIDEND paid during the present fiscal year	69,160
TOTAL DIVIDENDS paid	419,000
TOTAL LOSSES paid	944,042

**NEW FEATURES—NEW TABLES,**

By which all Policies are NON-FORFEITING and ENDOWMENT, payable at about the same cost as ordinary Life and Ten-Payment Policies payable at death only. We call special attention to these Tables as exceedingly attractive and ORIGINAL with the UNION. In case payments are discontinued, after two premiums have been paid, the Company contract to pay, AT DEATH or the SPECIFIED AGE, an amount in proportion to the number of premiums paid.

The Percentage system of Dividends used by this Company affords greater protection to the family than any other plan, as in event of an early death the amount of policy paid is twice that paid by all cash Companies with the same cash outlay of premiums.

The greatest possible liberality in assisting parties to keep their Policies in force. Liberality and promptitude in the settlement of claims.

We refer to the Massachusetts and New York Insurance Commissioners' Reports for 1864 and 1865 as an evidence of the Safety, Reliability, and Unparalleled Success of the Union Mutual.

J. W. & H. JUDD, GENERAL AGENTS.

Active and efficient AGENTS wanted. Apply as above.

**NIAGARA FIRE INSURANCE CO.  
OFFICE, 12 WALL STREET.**

**CASH CAPITAL INCREASED TO \$1,000,000  
SURPLUS, JAN. 1, 1865, 275,253**

Losses equitably adjusted and promptly paid.

CHARTERED 1850.

Cash Dividends paid in fourteen years, 248 per cent.

JONATHAN D. STEELE, President.

P. NOTMAN, Secretary.

**PACIFIC  
MUTUAL INSURANCE COMPANY,  
TRINITY BUILDING, 111 BROADWAY.**

**ASSETS, JANUARY 1, 1866, \$1,164,380**

**DIVIDEND, TWENTY PER CENT.**

This Company insures against MARINE and INLAND Navigation Risks on Cargo and Freight.

No Time Risks or Risks upon Hulls of Vessels are taken.

The Profits of the Company ascertained from January 10, 1855, to January 1, 1865, for which certificates were issued, amount to..... \$1,707,310

Additional profits from January 1, 1865, to January 1, 1866..... 189,024

Total profit for eleven years..... \$1,896,330  
The certificates previous to 1865 have been redeemed in cash..... 1,107,244

NEW YORK, Feb. 20, 1866.

ALFRED EDWARDS, President.  
WILLIAM LECONEY, Vice-President.

THOMAS HALE, Secretary.

**THE FOURTH NATIONAL BANK**

HAVE REMOVED TO THEIR NEW

BANKING ROOM,

NASSAU STREET, NORTHEAST CORNER OF PINE STREET,

Opposite United States Treasury.

**GOVERNMENT SECURITIES**

At all times on hand at lowest prices.

## DEMULCENT SOAP,

FOR CHAPPED AND TENDER HANDS,  
FOR TOILET AND BATH USE.

MANUFACTURED ONLY BY

J. C. HULL'S SON,  
32 PARK ROW, N. Y.Upwards of 100 styles of Toilet and Staple Soaps. For sale  
by all Dealers.OAKLEY & MASON,  
PUBLISHERS, BOOKSELLERS, STATIONERS,  
AND BLANK-BOOK MANUFACTURERS,

21 MURRAY STREET,

OLD STAND OF PRATT, OAKLEY & CO.,  
Between Broadway and Church Street, New York.DECKER & CO.,  
MANUFACTURERS OF PIANO-FORTES,  
419 BROOME STREET,  
One Block East of Broadway, N. Y.

These Pianos stand unrivaled in regard to their singing quality; volume and purity of tone; sympathetic, elastic, and even touch; and durability of construction, which enables them to remain in tune much longer than ordinary Pianos.

## SPRING CLOTHING!

## Spring Clothing!!

FOR

MEN AND BOYS.

Garments made to order.

## GENTS' FURNISHING GOODS,

Etc., Etc.,

AT

## FREEMAN &amp; BURR'S

One Price Clothing Warehouse,  
124 Fulton and 90 Nassau Streets,  
Opposite the Sun Building, New York.

We are now selling a large and complete stock of Ready-made Clothing for Gents' and Boys' wear, at from 10 to 40 per cent. below former prices.

## The Horace Waters

Grand, Square, and Upright PIANOS, MELODEONS, HARMONIUMS, and CABINET ORGANS. Wholesale and retail, at reduced prices. To let, and rent allowed if purchased. Monthly payments received for the same. Second-hand Pianos at bargains, prices \$60, \$75, \$100, \$125, \$150, \$175, \$200, and \$250. Factory and Warehouses, 481 Broadway. Cash paid for second-hand Pianos.

## MARVIN'S

## PATENT FIRE AND BURGLAR SAFE:

Superior to any others in the following particulars: They are more fire-proof. They are more burglar-proof. They are perfectly dry. They do not lose their fire-proof qualities by age. Manufactured only by

MARVIN & CO., 265 Broadway.  
71 Chestnut Street, Philadelphia.

Send for a descriptive Circular.

## ARCHER &amp; PANCOAST,

Manufacturers of

GAS FIXTURES,  
COAL-OIL LAMPS, CHANDELIERS, ETC.,  
OF EVERY DESCRIPTION.

## MANUFACTORY AND WAREHOUSES,

9, 11, and 13 Mercer Street, New York.  
Special attention paid to the fitting up of hotels, halls, private residences, etc., etc.

## Economical Housekeepers Use

PYLE'S SALSARATE. PYLE'S O. K. SOAP.  
PYLE'S CREAM TARTAR. PYLE'S BLUEING POWDER.

Articles designed for all who want the best goods, full weight. Sold by best Grocers everywhere. Each package bears the name of JAMES PYLE, Manufacturer, New York.

TWENTY-FIRST ANNUAL REPORT  
OF THE

## NEW YORK LIFE INSURANCE CO.

OFFICE, 112 AND 114 BROADWAY, N. Y.

January 1, 1866.

Amount of assets, Jan. 1, 1865	\$3,658,755 55
Amount of premiums received during 1865	\$2,684,804 86
Amount of interest received and accrued, including premium on gold, etc.	257,260 54
	2,342,065 40
Total	\$6,000,820 95

## DISBURSEMENTS.

Paid losses by death	\$490,522 03
Paid for redemption of dividends, annuities, and surrendered and cancelled policies	294,698 53
Paid salaries, printing, and office expenses	71,528 95
Paid commissions and agency expenses	216,405 53
Paid for advertising and physician's fees	31,542 41
Paid taxes, internal revenue stamps, war contribution, and law expenses	14,203 80
	\$1,118,901 25
Total	\$4,881,919 70

## ASSETS.

Cash on hand and in bank	\$250,036 56
Invested in United States stocks, cost (market value, \$2,140,775)	2,115,431 25
Invested in New York City Bank stocks, cost (market value, \$54,475).	52,561 50
Invested in other stocks, cost (market value, \$334,015).	333,923 15
Loans on demand, secured by U. S. and other stocks (market value, \$35,858)	48,500 00
Real estate (market value, \$250,000).	140,819 74
Bonds and mortgages	250,747 02
Premium notes on existing policies bearing interest	1,186,988 21
Quarterly and semi-annual premiums due subsequent to Jan. 1, 1866	242,451 08
Interest accrued to Jan. 1, 1866	60,980 50
Rents accrued to Jan. 1, 1866	1,879 12
Premiums on policies in hands of agents and in course of transmission	197,601 54
	\$4,881,919 70

The Trustees have declared a return premium as follows: A Scrip Dividend of FIFTY PER CENT. upon all participating premiums on Life Policies in force, which were issued twelve months prior to Jan. 1, 1866, and directed the redemption in full of the dividends declared in 1863 and 1864.

Certificates will be redeemed in cash on and after the first Monday in March next, on presentation at the home office. Policies subject to notes will be credited with the return on settlement of next premium.

By order of the Board.

WILLIAM H. BEERS, Actuary.

During the year 5,138 new policies were issued, ensuring \$16,324,888.

## BALANCE SHEET OF THE COMPANY, JAN. 1, 1866.

Assets as above, at cost	\$4,881,919 70
(Market value, \$5,018,449 06)	
Disposed of as follows:	
Reserved for losses, due subsequent to Jan. 1, 1866	78,841 45
Reserved for reported losses, awaiting proofs	2,000 00
Reserved for special deposit for minor children	285 76
Amount reserved for insurance on all existing policies (valuations at 4 per cent. interest)	3,590,297 66
Reserved for:	
Dividends declared prior to 1863, due or payable on demand	118,211 88
Dividends, 1863 and 1864, now to be paid	232,895 00
Dividend, 1865 (present value)	315,042 00
Dividend, 1866 (present value)	406,117 00
Special reserve (not divided)	184,238 95
	\$4,881,919 70

MORRIS FRANKLIN, President.

ISAAC C. KENDALL, Vice-Pres't.

WILLIAM H. BEERS, Actuary.

THEODORE M. BANTA, Cashier.  
CORNELIUS R. BOGERT, M.D., Medical Examiners.  
GEORGE WILKES, M.D.,  
CHARLES WRIGHT, M.D., Assistant Med. Examiner.

RAVEN & BACON'S PIANO-FORTES.  
(ESTABLISHED 1829.)

A full assortment of these Instruments, which have been well known in the New York market for more than thirty years, constantly on hand. We are continually adding improvements to our Pianos, and our facilities enable us to furnish them at terms and prices satisfactory to purchasers. Pictorial circulars sent by mail. Wareroom, 133 Grand St., near Broadway, New York.

Russell Sturgis, Jr.,  
ARCHITECT,  
98 Broadway, New York.

Vaux, Withers & Co.,  
ARCHITECTS,  
110 Broadway.

Olmsted, Vaux & Co.,  
LANDSCAPE ARCHITECTS.

The undersigned have associated under the above title for the business of advising on matters of location, and furnishing Designs and Superintendence for Architectural and Engineering Works, including the Laying-out of Towns, Villages, Parks, Cemeteries, and Gardens.

FRED. LAW OLMS TED,  
CALVERT VAUX,  
FRED'K C. WITHERS.  
110 Broadway,  
New York, January 1, 1866.

FRANCIS & LOUTREL,  
45 MAIDEN LANE, NEW YORK,

STATIONERS, STEAM PRINTERS,  
AND

BLANK-BOOK MANUFACTURERS,  
Supply everything in their line at lowest prices. Every kind of Writing Paper, Account Books, Fancy and Staple Stationery, Diaries for 1866, Expense Books, etc. Orders solicited.

JOSEPH GILLOTT'S STEEL PENS  
OF THE OLD STANDARD QUALITY.

TRADE MARK: Joseph Gillott, Warranted.

or Descriptive Name, and Designating Number. New Series, Good and Cheap, from No. 700 to No. 761. TRADE MARK: Joseph Gillott, Birmingham. Designating Numbers.

For sale by JOSEPH GILLOTT & SONS,  
91 John Street, New York.  
HENRY OWEN, Sole Agent.

## ESTEY'S COTTAGE ORGANS.

\$100 TO \$500.

These popular instruments excel all others in QUICKNESS OF ACTION, ROUNDNESS, PURITY, AND VOLUME OF TONE, ACCOMPLISHED BY PATENT IMPROVEMENTS. The crowning perfection is the

## VOX HUMANA TREMOLO,

a wonderful imitation of the sympathetic sweetness of the human voice.

They are strongly endorsed by Geo. W. Morgan, Wm. A. King, Chas. Fradel, and many others, the highest musical authority in the United States.

Good Agents wanted everywhere.

Send for illustrated catalogue or call at the New Warehouses.

GEO. G. SAXE & CO.,  
417 Broome Street, N. Y.

STEINWAY & SONS'  
GRAND, SQUARE, AND UPRIGHT  
PIANO-FORTES.

Have taken Thirty-two First Premiums, Gold and Silver Medals, at the Principal Fairs held in this country within the last ten years, and in addition thereto they were awarded a First Prize Medal at the Great International Exhibition in London, 1862, in competition with 269 Pianos from all parts of the World.

That the great superiority of these instruments is now universally conceded is abundantly proven by the FACT that Messrs. Steinway's "scales, improvements, and peculiarities of construction" have been copied by the great majority of the manufacturers of both hemispheres (AS CLOSELY AS COULD BE DONE WITHOUT INFRINGEMENT OF PATENT RIGHTS) and that their instruments are used by the most eminent pianists of Europe and America, who prefer them for their own public and private use, whenever accessible.

STEINWAY & SONS direct special attention to their PATENT AGRAFFE ARRANGEMENT, which, having been practically tested in all their grand and highest-priced Square Pianos, and admitted to be one of the greatest improvements of modern times, will hereafter be introduced in EVERY PIANO MANUFACTURED BY THEM WITHOUT INCREASE OF COST to the purchaser, in order that their patrons may reap its benefits.

STEINWAY & SONS' PIANOS are the only American instruments exported to Europe in large numbers, and used in European concert-rooms.

WAREROOMS, 71 & 73 EAST FOURTEENTH ST., between Union Square and Irving Place, New York.

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